

SOCIAL EDUCATION

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Editor's Page

THE NATIONAL COUNCIL—AND TEACHERS

TEACHERS, like other Americans, are coming to be "joiners." A few of our educational associations date back to the nineteenth century, but during the past generation especially local, district, state, regional, and national groups of many interests and combinations of interests have sprung up. Of course they testify to growing professional activity and spirit, but they make heavy demands on time for meetings, for executive and committee work, and for reading publications—not to mention dues and travel expenses. Though most might agree that organizations are worth while, few can support and participate in all even of those that directly concern their professional responsibilities. If administrative pressure is applied to secure 100 per cent membership in the important national and state organizations, as often happens, other groups are neglected. Yet for most teachers of social studies, for example, the meetings of state and the meetings and publications of national social studies organizations are apt to provide the only possible contact with new development in an active and specialized field.

LEARNING ON THE JOB

SOME teachers go on for graduate study—for a time at least—but most do not. Some find time, and the necessary books, to keep up with developments in their subject matter field and in education through their reading, but most do not. A few communities can provide supervisors, bulletins, and in-service instruction so that

teachers can keep abreast of new developments, but most can not. Yet new teaching materials pour from the presses, new developments in educational psychology and philosophy suggest new organizations of the curriculum and new teaching procedures, and new responsibilities—for guidance, for developing social competence of pupils, for encouraging hobbies through clubs and activities, for parent education, for community leadership—are being constantly assigned to the teacher.

This is the situation which the National Council attempts to meet. Its sessions and publications are meeting places for all whose activities touch social studies teaching—for classroom teachers and supervisors, for administrators, curriculum workers, psychologists, guidance experts, and specialists in subject matter. Its meetings bring together not only educators of common but many of different interests, providing opportunity for exchange of views, for articulation of increasingly complex activities, for gaining perspective on social studies teaching and on education as a whole. Its publications reflect the same breadth of interest. It is a great enterprise in professional education and development, and for many teachers it offers the only available opportunity for in-service growth or even for the maintenance of such competence as may have been attained. The effectiveness of its work is limited only, on one side, by the amount and quality of leadership and effort, and, on the other, by the extent to which teachers can support it and avail themselves of its services.

LIMITATIONS AND NEEDS

VARIOUS limitations are obvious. The National Council, as already suggested, finds itself competing for time and support with other professional organizations, and confronting the extremely full schedules and far from full pocketbooks of teachers. It encourages and supports the establishment and strengthening of local groups, but recognizes the financial problems of teachers with further needs by keeping annual dues at the crampingly low figure of three dollars and by relying almost entirely on the unpaid work of officers and speakers. The maintenance of ambitious programs of meetings and publication reflect the continuing generosity of many individuals and the care and efficiency of a small directing group. As, in the eighteen years of the Council's existence, membership and financial support have increased, and as the number of those actively interested has grown, the quality of service has improved steadily, though the limits certainly have not been reached. More suggestions from teachers are needed, more reports of new experiments and activities, closer contact with "the spirit and letter of scholarship," "the realities and ideas of society," and "the nature and limitations of the teaching and learning process," the factors which, the *Charter for the Social Sciences* declared, condition social studies instruction.

It is no reflection on other organizations, which serve different purposes, to assert that no other association is serving or can serve the urgent professional needs of teachers in the vital area of social studies as can the Council. It merits the sympathetic support, and welcomes the constructive suggestions, of principals and superintendents, especially in communities which can not maintain an in-service program of teacher education and continued growth. There is even a good deal to be said in such circumstances for aiding teachers to avail themselves of the most available and least expensive agency for helping teachers maintain and increase their efficiency. The need for such an agency is

clear. The wider the interest in it, the greater the activity in it and the support of it, the more effective its work can become.

THE TEACHER'S JOB GROWS BIGGER

ONE further limitation on the effectiveness of the Council's work needs to be noted—a limitation which has implications needing the attention not only of teachers but especially of administrators. As teaching becomes more a profession, less narrowly occupied with hearing recitations and checking on the learning of facts, more concerned with guiding growth, developing understandings and attitudes, and exploring relationships, professional competence becomes more and more essential, professional incompetence more and more dangerous. Yet the implications of new teacher responsibilities have not been faced—perhaps not even considered. It is not uncommon to find teachers with six or seven classes daily, involving four to seven preparations, together with home room, guidance, and study hall responsibility, club, athletic, or other student activity assignments, customary staff and parent-teacher meetings to attend, and, not infrequently, clerical duties of recording grades or statements about individual pupils.

It is not only in finance that an excess of expenditure over income leads to bankruptcy, nor is it financial budgets only that need careful consideration in education. Teacher loads in terms of pupils, classes, preparations, and other school and community responsibilities are generally too heavy. In the social studies where subject matter is especially complicated, materials especially extensive, change especially rapid, the situation is acute. There is no sense in demanding that teachers develop understandings and attitudes, explore relationships and integrate various fields of knowledge, and give attention to individual guidance and growth if they are left with time only to assign and check on pages in textbooks, and no opportunity to gain competence for more than hearing conventional

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recitations. Yet rare indeed is action, even in communities that are able to take it, such as reported by one supervisor who has limited the number of social studies preparations to two.

THE substantial gains in American education during the past quarter century have been carried out largely, perforce, by teachers. Those to come must be attained through the same agents. Some of the implications are plain—more careful selection of those who are to teach, improved teacher preparation, salaries that will permit study and travel and contacts with other teachers and with leaders in education whose work bears on classroom activities. But beyond that a teaching load that is reasonable, that permits reading and thought, that provides for intake as well as outgo, is clearly essential.

Much of this depends of course on the sympathetic understanding of teaching problems on the part of school administrators and on the education of the public. Much of it too depends on the extent to which new teachers can maintain contact with new developments and to which older teachers can be professionally reeducated. And that is an area where, until leaves with pay for travel and study become commonplace, the work of such organizations as the National Council for the Social Studies becomes of more than casual and incidental importance in American education, and affects more than a small group of specialists.

ERLING M. HUNT

SOCIAL STUDIES OUT OF SCHOOL

EVERYONE knows how greatly man's affairs have changed in the last two decades, but does everyone know how much the teaching of them has altered in that time? I do not refer to such general changes in education as the more scientific measurement of the child's ability, the much greater choice of subjects offered to meet the widening range of ability—widening, that is on the lower side only, as more stringent compulsory education laws are passed and eco-

nomic depression leaves in the classroom many of those who otherwise would have been in the shop. Nor do I mean unearned promotions after two exposures to one grade, and the increasing emphasis upon manual dexterity and physical education as a whole. The changes that most particularly affect the teaching of history are a greater knowledge of the subject acquired outside of school and the lessening in effort on the part of the pupil to acquire any further information. No longer does the teacher pre-suppose ignorance on the part of the pupils and introduce them to ancient history or English history or American history through a succession of regular assignments. The teacher now pre-supposes a good deal of information and accepts, not happily, the fact that many of the pupils will make very little systematic effort to acquire any clearer conception of man's past.

The radio, the movies, and the press thrust upon the child a thousand kaleidoscopic bits of information—and they take his time. It seems to have become the history teacher's task to synthesize, correct, and, possibly, fill in the vacant places between impressions, rather than to guide the ordered acquisition of knowledge of a segment of man's past.

MOVIES sometimes seem to the impatient pedagogue a moronic entertainment to which habit, or the desire for companionship, or nervous restlessness, drives the pupil once, twice, and even five times a week, but there is an ever increasing number of usable topics presented, usable, that is, by the history teacher. Napoleon may remain in the mind of the child of today as a loose lipped, romantic individual chiefly interested in Poland, but his image is probably clearer than it was to all but the most imaginative readers of two decades ago. Zola's story, denuded of much anti-Semitism, has assumed a greater importance than it is accorded in most textbooks of modern European history. Pasteur's achievements, at least some of them, are impressed upon the

minds of millions as clearly as the activities of Heidi! Alexander Hamilton, Florence Nightingale, Voltaire, and others have become definite personalities—as has Tom Mix's horse. Less frequently some movement such as the crusades becomes illuminated by Edison's lights. The spectator may not, of course, know whether to place this before or after the discovery of Columbus, or be at all interested in any possible causal relation. Drums shows the British conception of imperialism as clearly as H. G. Wells's Martian play, radio-adapted, revealed the gullibility of radio audiences. *The Covered Wagon* and the *Birth of a Nation* seem to have left very vivid impressions.

RADIO has its advantages for the history teacher, also, however much one may at times decry its incessant din. As an accompaniment to what little effort may be applied to the preparation of home work, it is—fruitlessly—condemned, but there are programs that bring to the ear of the child many topics and parts of topics worth knowing. News commentators may seem superficial to a serious minded person, but I am sure they give thousands of children, and adults, a much more adequate understanding of present-day happenings than has been possessed by any previous generation. The president, his helpers, and some of his opponents have become familiars of young America. There is greater likelihood of a pupil's listening to a radio speech given by a candidate of the party his family does not favor than there is of his attending a rally of the opposing party. The radio is the troubadour of today, an ubiquitous troubadour. It brings not only news and gossip but entertainment of various sorts. In the field of biography Disraeli has become as real as George Arliss. Sam Houston may not be as widely known as Charlie McCarthy, but many have heard him. The dramatization of historic events, such as the adventures of Daniel Boone and of the conquistadores, is very popular, although its popularity wanes

before the foolish laughter of a vulgar comedian. Once in a while pupils may even be persuaded to listen to such stimulating arguments as take place in America's Town Meeting of the Air, if this does not conflict with a mystery story or a favorite jazz orchestra.

AS for reading, it may be difficult to persuade a pupil to study a textbook regularly or to seek further information upon a particular topic in a supplemental book, or to follow a periodical of recognized reliability, but he will, without being urged, read, or at least scan, a good many magazines and papers containing some grain amid their chaff. The remarkable development of photography has brought much of the past and the distant to the sort of pupil who at earlier times would have remained blankly ignorant of all of it. To be sure, these are at the mercy of editorial selection and labeling, as well as chance. Yet have not limitations of ability always subjected many to the will of the purveyors of such information as they did receive? A partial cure for gullibility is offered by photographic explanation of the methods of trick photography, and by verbal explanation of the methods of propaganda.

ONE serious difficulty in the way of the history teacher who seeks to correct, clarify, and correlate facts presented in such bewildering number by cinema, radio, and press is that not all pupils hear and see the same items. Another difficulty is that this large and confusing task requires more frequent attendance at movies, more careful attention to radio programs and announcements, and more discriminating examination of varying types of periodicals than a history teacher has time for. The new task cannot be mastered as completely as the old work of introducing pupil to subject matter, but at least there is little likelihood of getting into a rut even after teaching history twenty years.

JENNIE L. PINGREY

Hastings-on-Hudson, New York

Civilization in Western and Eastern Europe

RICHARD SALOMON

IMAGINE an average American tourist going to Europe for the first time. I let him spend some days in England, and there he will, of course, feel almost at home, enough at home to be irritated by the little differences that are not quite homelike. Then he will go to Paris and make his first steps in less familiar surroundings. For a short time he will perhaps be bewildered a little by linguistic troubles, but he will not be long in discovering that French life in its essential traits is not so different from what he has seen across the channel. Then in Italy and Germany, in spite of what seem to him extraordinary ways of promoting national or political ideas, he will feel much the same way.

Now he takes the great risk. He wants to see a little bit of Russia as well, and he goes by train from Berlin to Moscow. Here he would be at a loss but for the kind assistance of an Intourist agent waiting for him at the station, guiding him as long as he stays in the red capital, and seeing him off when he leaves. Even though he may stay a week or more, the impression he has had in Paris or Rome will not come. He never loses the feeling that he is in a foreign world. It is not only the ununderstandable posters in a

strange script, not only the language, not only the specific forms of public life under Soviet rule. More than all these, it is the remainders of older periods of Russian history that make him feel so strange.

OUR tourist recalls his former impressions of Westminster Abbey, Notre Dame, and the cathedral of Cologne. They are certainly very different from each other, and yet they are akin; but not the slightest relation exists between them and these Russian monuments. The visitor may see many buildings of the European type in Moscow too, modern hotels, classical porticoes, and even some modest skyscrapers; but he does not need more than a glance at the few old churches spared by the recent destruction and at genuine Russian wood architecture in the more remote streets of the city in order to realize that this European architecture has been imported, that it is copy and imitation.

Suppose our tourist goes farther into Russia, say, down the Volga on a boat. There he will see a good deal of modern construction, plants and factories as beautiful or as ugly as elsewhere; but again there is something strange in the life of the small river ports at which his boat stops. He sees types of people never seen before, the poor Russian carriers in rags slaving like beasts of burden, the Russian peasant with his broad beard; and these Russian types vastly outnumber the more standardized figures of the soldiers, guards, and officers.

Finally the American leaves the country with the sense of having had a look into a

The author of this article was for some years a professor at the University of Hamburg and is now attached to the faculties of Swarthmore College and Bryn Mawr College.

very strange world. On his way back, he makes a stopover at Warsaw, and there he begins to feel at home once more.

Well, real experiences of this kind, seeing Russia with one's own eyes, are reserved to few persons. Most of us must form our ideas about Russia from reading alone. Remember the moment when you first became acquainted with Dostoyevsky or Tolstoy. Wasn't it a similar feeling of strangeness, of a much more intense strangeness than from reading a French or a German book of equal rank?

WE may proceed from this naive and general experience to a consideration of certain fundamental differences between the western and the eastern half of Europe. There can be no doubt that the Easterner is just as conscious of this difference as the Westerner. In pre-war times, when Russians used to travel abroad, they called a trip to Germany or France "going to Europe"—as if Russia formed no part of that continent.

What is the reason for this curious contrast? It is certainly not the physical or racial difference between Romanic and Teutonic nations, on the one hand, and Slavonic ones on the other, for nobody will doubt that the city of Prague belongs to the West, although the Czech is no less Slavonic than the Russian who certainly belongs to the East. The Russian himself feels the contrast and expresses it in a common Russian saying: "The Czech is but a German speaking a Slavonic language." Evidently physical or ethnological considerations are not decisive factors in this field.

HERITAGE OF IMPERIAL ROME

THE explanation of this astonishing dualistic aspect of Europe lies in the past, and we shall have to look far back to find the roots of it. Very far back: to the times of the greatest, strongest, and most enduring union Europe has ever seen—to the times of the old Roman empire, a unique state comprising the whole basin of the Mediterranean with all the adjoining countries as

well as England and a part of Germany. The whole development of Europe in the period that we usually call the middle ages is closely related to the existence of this universal state. All the states that arose in medieval Europe drew a large part of their cultural and intellectual life from the Roman world. In spite of all their political differences, in spite of endless warfare, they nevertheless preserved a unity of a higher order, they were and remained tied together by the bond of Christian civilization transmitted through the Roman empire.

When the Roman empire was broken up, Christianity had already been established within its boundaries firmly enough to outlast the catastrophe. A great part of the new barbarous nations that conquered the territory of the empire had already been won over to the new religion, and their total conversion was brought about during the centuries immediately following. Of all the cultural bequests of the Roman empire the Christian faith turned out to be the most important. Thus the eternal city of Rome retained its position as the capital of the Western world, only in an altered sense, changing from political to ecclesiastical domination.

There are few facts in history of more far reaching consequences than the union between Roman state and Christian religion, inaugurated by the emperor Constantine, whom the church has gratefully given the name of the Great. This union was responsible for the survival of spiritual unity when political unity had passed away.

Innumerable nations had been joined under the rule of the Roman emperor and had shared the blessings of the Pax Romana—nations with very different cultures, the old oriental peoples of Egypt and Syria and Asia Minor with a civilization of their own, the more or less barbarian tribes of northern Africa, the Iberic and Celtic nations of Spain and Gaul, the Britons of England, and the German tribes along the Rhine. Yet among all the different types of civilizations two occupy a decisively dominating posi-

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THIS tual ture, e world, change by wha peoples began, as in its

tion, the Roman and the Greek. In the time before the empire was consolidated by the force of Roman arms they had been wide apart. The peasant culture of old Latium had little to do with the civilization of Athens as it was in the times of Pericles; but from the moment that Rome began to extend her domination over the Eastern half of the Mediterranean world, when Greece came under Roman rule in the second century before Christ, this ceased to be true.

Politically the Romans were the victors, unconditionally and undoubtedly, but culturally the conquered East took its revenge. This Roman empire eventually became a Graeco-Roman one. As the Latin language, the language of the all-present Roman army and the Roman administration, penetrated the eastern provinces of the empire, the Greek language found its way to the West, as the language of a higher and more refined culture. Intellectually and artistically, Rome passed altogether under the influence of Greece, as it is clearly shown, for instance, by the forms of Roman poetry and by the innumerable Roman reproductions of the Greek masterpieces of art. It is highly significant that in a certain period the best Greek schools of the empire were to be found not in Greece but in Southern France—so extensive was the influence of Greek culture. And most significant are figures like the emperor Hadrian, born in Rome of Spanish descent; that Philhellene on the Roman throne who loved to style himself with Greek titles as Olympios or Panhellenios; and Emperor Marcus Aurelius who wrote his celebrated "Meditations" in Greek.

THIS process of amalgamation or of mutual permeation of Latin and Greek culture, establishing the unity of the Roman world, was interrupted by the political changes within the empire, brought about by what we used to call the migration of peoples. From about 250 A.D. a movement began, rather enigmatic in its origins as well as in its essence, among the tribes of south-

ern Scandinavia and northern Germany. They left their territories, wandering south, overflowing first the southeast of Europe, obtaining by force their entrance into the empire itself, and continuing their wanderings on the soil of the empire.

CONSTANTINOPLE VERSUS ROME

FOR defence against these barbarians and other enemies on the eastern frontier measures were inaugurated which eventually resulted in the destruction of the political unity of the empire. Constantine the Great himself, the same man who had brought about the union of the Christian faith and the Roman empire, took the most important step in this direction when he established a new center, a new imperial residence on the foundations of the old Greek colony, Byzantium, to which he gave his own name, Constantinople.

The setting up of a new capital for the whole empire in its eastern half was designed primarily not to create a dualistic state of affairs but to shift the political centre of the empire. The official surname of "New Rome" given to the new city and retained by it throughout the whole middle ages proclaimed the intention of its founder: to dispossess Old Rome to which only the honours and privileges of a dowager were to be left. The new headquarters seemed better adapted to the strategic and political needs of an empire threatened by the barbarians.

Nevertheless, in the long run it was just this transfer that caused the rise of a permanent dualistic state of affairs in the empire. The one empire came to be split in two. From the end of the fourth century we see two Roman empires, a Latin Western centering at Rome and a Greek Eastern one centering at Constantinople.

They have had very different destinies. The Western empire was shattered by the barbarians less than a century later, whereas the Eastern one, the Byzantine empire, made a thousand years' fight for its existence, with diminishing vigour from century to century but recovering somehow after all

setbacks and never entirely destroyed till the end of the middle ages when Constantinople was taken by the Turks.

THE process of amalgamation of Greek and Roman cultures was terminated rather abruptly by this political division. Each part reverted to its cultural self-sufficiency. Greek died out in the West, Latin in the East. In the fifth century in Rome itself a man able to translate a difficult Greek text into Latin was not easily found. Latin found its last great monument in the East in Emperor Justinian's law books; and it is very significant that Justinian's later laws were partly written in Greek and still more significant that in the next centuries his great Latin Corpus Juris had to be replaced by a Greek translation for the use of Byzantine courts of justice.

Ecclesiastical struggles between Rome and Constantinople, beginning as early in the fifth century and resulting later in a complete schism between the Roman Catholic and the Greek Orthodox churches, served to deepen the gulf between the nations once united. The later Byzantine empire regarded with a bitter hatred the Latin schismatics.

THUS evolution of medieval Europe is centered about two poles, Rome and Constantinople. This evolution turns out to be generally parallel in both parts. Every part of the old empire was overrun by barbarian nations that settled down on its territory, founding new and vigorous states of their own, Teutons in the West and Slavs in the East, Goths in Spain, Franks in Gaul, Anglo-Saxons in Britain, Lombards in Italy and Serbs, Croats, Bulgarians in the Balkan Peninsula. But, although the barbarians appeared as conquerors and victors on the political field, their culture was bound to go the same way the civilization of the Romans had gone when they had subdued Greece. They became the wards of the older cultural powers by which they were to be educated and civilized.

WESTERN CULTURAL UNITY

CIVILIZATION in the medieval sense means Christianization. The church alone in a barbarous world was able to bring the benefits of culture. The missionary became a central figure. Later on, when the pagans had been baptized and ecclesiastical institutions were established among them, the monastery was the cultural center. It was by missionaries and monks that Teutons and Slavs were taught to read and to write and acquired the foundations of a higher civilization. The further cultural evolution of the Christianized nations depended in large part upon the methods and principles observed by their spiritual educators. It will become evident that these methods were very different in East and West.

THE main instrument in the transmission of culture is language. That is why we have to look first at the policy followed by each church in regard to the language problem.

In all its missionary work, the Western church maintained the use of its original language, that is, Latin. Naturally, for the more elementary purposes of teaching pagans and preaching to laymen the missionary had to make himself acquainted with the national language of his pupils—there are preserved such monuments as a baptismal formula in old Frankish dialect—but creed, liturgy, and administration of the sacraments were all in Latin, and so were all the other offices of ecclesiastical life. The admission to holy orders was made dependent on the knowledge of Latin. The whole education of the clergy was a Latin one. The church school—the only one existing—taught the language of the church, and practically the whole of scientific literature, theological, historical, philosophical, was Latin for many centuries. Thus the intellectual as well as the spiritual life of Western Europe in the early middle ages bore the stamp of Rome; the typical representative of medieval culture, the "clericus," the clergyman, notwithstanding his nationality,

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was essentially Roman. A characteristically Roman spirit, St Augustine, was the immortal ruler of this truly international community, and all the great representatives of medieval thought appear uniformly Roman in their way of thinking—no matter that Bernard of Clairvaux was a Frenchman by birth, St Thomas Aquinas an Italian, Albertus Magnus a German. A transformed Roman law, the canon law, regulated and centralized the life of the church from Scotland and Scandinavia down to Sicily.

REALLY this Roman church was a grandiose and imposing structure, if seen from this point of view; but it also is true that certain forces of cultural life in the single nations have been hampered and checked by its existence. Nearly everywhere it took an astonishingly long time from the conversion to Christian faith to the growing-up of a national literature. Generally speaking, the barbarians learned to write in the school of the church. Yet what they learned to write was Latin rather than their own language. For centuries the so-called vulgar languages, the spoken languages of France, Italy, Germany, were restricted to a Cinderella existence beside the noble language of the church. It took a long time before the common everyday language became eligible for higher purposes. The first great and everlasting national monuments of medieval literature are comparatively young: Dante's Italian *epopee*, the *Divina Commedia*, as well as the German *Nibelungen* and the French *Chansons de Geste*.

There are exceptions, of course—the most interesting of them in England, where the first laws were written in Anglo-Saxon, not in unkempt Latin like all the early statute books of the other Teutonic nations. There—in England—we find the singular figure of a great doctor of the church, the Venerable Bede, writing his own native language as well as Latin.

Elsewhere there are early isolated efforts in the use of the vernacular for literary pur-

poses, as for example, the *Heliand*, a very early Old-German adaptation of the Gospels in Old-German. These however are exceptions. In general, Latin, during the early middle ages, dominated the whole literary world of the West.

EVEN later on, when the national languages had attained their cultural maturity, when they had become flexible enough to express the subtlest and most abstract products of the human mind, when a classical literature in the national languages developed everywhere, when Shakespeare and Luther, Rabelais and Calderon flourished, Latin held its own, Latin remained the authentic language of European scholars. Humanism was an essentially Latin movement. Erasmus of Rotterdam held his Dutch mother tongue in contempt and restricted himself to Latin. Thomas More—well, he wrote English, but his immortal work, the *Utopia*, is in Latin. The same was true of Spinoza and Leibnitz. And when, at the end of the Thirty Years War, the diplomats gathered to make a general peace, the text of the treaty they signed was in Latin. It was not before the nineteenth century that Latin completely lost its preferred position as the language for international purposes.

Intellectual unity has been preserved in this way, although the outer unity of the Roman church had been destroyed long since by the Reformation. Though free from the Roman hierarchy, the Protestant nations in a certain sense remained members of this one great family of nations. They no longer recognized the Roman pope as their spiritual head, but they continued to participate with Rome in the same cultural community.

CULTURAL unity of the Romanic and Teutonic nations, established by their common Roman education, has been strengthened by later great events of history in which all of them have taken part. The crusades, the renaissance, the reforma-

tion, the development of a new philosophy in the seventeenth century, the rise of rationalism in the eighteenth century are all of them movements of great significance in the whole of western Christendom. It is of secondary importance what the precise effects of these movements were. The reformation, for example, might attain its objectives in England and fail to attain them in France, but in every case its influence was tremendous—it could be received, it could be resisted, but it could not be eluded or ignored. The counter reformation was just as much the product of the movement as was the reformation—a strengthened Roman Catholicism just as surely its offspring as an established Protestantism.

All these—crusades, renaissance, reformation—mean nothing in Eastern Europe. Russian history can be written almost without mentioning the words.

BYZANTIUM AND AUTONOMOUS EVOLUTION

LET us now pass on to this Eastern part—but let me make one remark before. We will find another type of culture in Russia than in the West, which I am far from criticizing unjustly or from degrading. It will be wise, when speaking about a culture in general, to keep in view its highest achievements. So we shall not forget the venerable names of Tolstoy, of Tchaikovsky, of Mendeleev, and of Einstein's forerunner, Lobachevski.

As the West was Rome's domain, the East was Constantinople's. As Rome civilized the Teutonic nations, Byzantine Christianity spread out among most of the Slavonic ones. The Slavs enter European history some centuries later than the Teutons in the sixth century. Slavonic tribes coming from the plains north of the Carpathian Mountains settled down in the Balkan peninsula, within the boundaries of the Byzantine empire, dangerous and barbarous enemies for a long time, finally attracted by the richer potentialities of Byzantine culture. The Bulgarians were the first to be

Christianized; and some generations later the greatest of all Slavonic nations, the Russians, found, under a Byzantine ecclesiastical protectorate, their way to the Christian faith.

THIS was the civilizing work of the Eastern church, and here we see a sharp contrast with the Western system already described. The Byzantine church has never been as strong a bond of union as the Roman. Although it styles itself a Catholic, that is, a universal church, the position of the patriarch of Constantinople is not to be compared with that of the Roman pope. He has never been a monarch of a spiritual realm, never been more than a courteously honored first among equals.

The principles of the Byzantine mission were absolutely contrary to those adopted by the Roman church. No stress was laid on unity in language. From early times every nation belonging to this church was free to have a liturgy in its own language. A Visigoth of the fourth century, trained as a missionary in Constantinople, was able to make his fellow-countrymen acquainted with the gospel in their own language. The celebrated Gothic Bible in the Upsala library, the Codex Argenteus, is the monument of his endeavors. Also, the minor churches of the East, the Coptic, Syriac, and Armenic, have ancient liturgies of their own.

This principle of toleration as to language was applied to the missionary work among the Slavs, as well. The great "apostles of the Slavs," St Cyrillus and St Methodius, and their disciples gave to the Slavs more than the Germans had received from their apostle, St Boniface. If the legend is right, it was St Cyrillus himself, a born Greek, who translated the most important biblical texts and the liturgy into a Slavonic dialect and invented characters derived from the Greek especially suited for writing Slavonic texts. This was the origin of the special Slavonic script, written and printed till today by Russians, Bulgarians, and Serbs.

For this reason, the Eastern nations in their cultural evolution were bound to follow paths of their own. A Slav receiving holy orders was not obliged to transform himself into a half Greek, like his Frankish colleague who had to become a half Roman. He was not compelled to express himself in another language than his own. In a certain sense this was an enormous advantage. The Slav nations attained within a very short time that for which the Romano-Teutonic world had to wait for a long time, a national literature. In Russia the growth of an independent literature began only a few decades after the conversion to Christianity. As in the West, so in Russia the monastery was the first cultural centre. As early as the end of the eleventh century, when French and German chroniclers were writing the traditional Latin, Russian history was written in Russian at Kiev, and this work, the so-called Nestor chronicle, made accessible to English readers by the admirable translation published some years ago by Samuel H. Cross of Harvard University, will remain forever a venerable monument of the Russian mind.

YET—and this is the dark side of this autonomous evolution—the Easterners had to pay for their freedom in language. To a certain degree their endeavors were encouraged by their Greek teachers; but, since they remained ignorant of the Greek language, the treasures of ancient culture preserved in Byzantium remained inaccessible to them. Here was a striking difference between the West and the East. The Western nations, thanks to the compulsory Latinizing of cultural life, were brought into touch with the culture of Greece and Rome, from which they have received many a valuable impulse. Without such impulses the intellectual development of medieval Europe would have been impossible. Scholasticism can not be thought of without the Aristotelian tradition; the admirable fabric of medieval theology is based on ideas and methods of antique philosophy. Maybe the

Roman mission was a strict teacher, but at the same time it was a liberal one. It is a profound and attractive symbol of the connection between antiquity and the Western middle ages that Dante in his *Divina Commedia* represents himself as being led through the Inferno and Purgatory by his adored master, the old Roman poet Vergil.

No analogy to this is to be found in the relations between Byzantium and her Slavonic disciples. The standards of education were much higher in Byzantium than in Rome. Its refined culture was not confined to ecclesiastical circles. There was an uninterrupted tradition of learning. Alexandrian scholastic knowledge was continued in the schools of Constantinople. In the twelfth century an educated young Byzantine could be expected to have made a serious study of Plato and to have read widely in Homer. Of all these riches the Russians and the Slavonic pupils of Byzantium in general received next to nothing. The books translated from Greek into the Slavonic languages were for the main part theological, needed for ecclesiastical purposes—legends, dogmatic and polemic treatises. The translation of secular texts was limited to some chronicles of very low standard and to fantastic popular tales. Genuine antique tradition always remained a sealed book to the disciples of Byzantium.

Anyone would be right in pointing out in reply to these observations that literature is not the most essential thing in the life of nations. But there are other consequences of Byzantine tutelage which made themselves felt in the history of the Slavs. For it was a real tutelage. Of the first twenty metropolitans, the heads of the Russian church, more than fifteen were Greeks.

SEPARATION FROM THE WEST

WHEN Russia was converted to the Christian faith, the antagonism between the Western and the Eastern church had already become insuperable; and the spiritual educators of the new converts had complete success in moulding them after

their own pattern. Every prejudice, every polemical tendency of the masters was received and credulously repeated and engraved forever into the Russian mind. One of the first things the new Russian Church had to learn was to hate the Latins, with whom, by the way, it had nearly no contact at all. It is rather a curious fact that among the oldest books in Russian there are pamphlets against Latin heresy. This effect of Byzantine influence must not be underrated. It served to erect a wall of mistrust and ignorance between the Slavs and the West. Foreigners coming to Russia were treated and isolated as suspicious and dangerous individuals as late as the seventeenth century—as late as the twentieth for that matter.

Thus the Russians were following a way of their own, strongly influenced in a decisive period of their cultural evolution by the forces of Byzantine dogmatism that was quite different from the religious life of the West. The dogma of the Roman Catholic Church is capable of development. It is subject to discussion and struggles, stimulating to mental activity and intellectual effort. The Eastern church is much more inclined to contemplation. Its dogmatical basis was finished more than a thousand years ago when St John of Damascus codified the doctrine. In the Greek Orthodox Church there is much less doubt and, consequently, much less evolution and much more subjection to authority and tradition than in the West.

This trait is deeply impressed on Russia's mind. The political dogmatism of modern Russia is more closely related to the old religious one than the typical traveler's or reporter's book on Russia will let you know. A good specialist who knew the Russian mind perfectly well, Dostoyevsky, has said: "Things which come up as hypotheses in the West are easily transformed into axioms in Russia." It is true that there is a greater need of belief and a lesser one of criticism in the average Russian's mind than in the Westerner's. I have no doubt this is a by-product of traditional religious education.

THE separation from the West initiated by Byzantine influences was favored by the great catastrophe of Russia in the thirteenth century, the invasion of the Mongols. It fell upon Russia with its full force; for more than two hundred years Christian Russia lost her independence and came under an Asiatic yoke, whereas Western Europe was spared such a humiliation. It can not be denied that this calamity, too, has left certain traces on the Russian mind and broadened the gulf between East and West, but it is of secondary importance with respect to our problem. The contrast between Russia and the West would have developed if no Mongol had ever set foot on Russian soil. The decisive fact was the religious influence of Rome on the one hand and of Constantinople on the other.

A proof of this can be found in a region where the cultural empires of Rome and Constantinople touch one another: in the relation between Serbs and Croats. As to nationality, they are nearly the same. Their languages are almost identical. On the other hand the Croats are Roman Catholic, and the Serbs are Greek Orthodox. The language is written in Latin characters by the one and in Cyrillic by the other. This is much more than a formality; it conveys a profound contrast strongly felt and freely uttered by both of them, although politically they are now united in one state, Yugoslavia. The Croat is deeply hurt when you call him a Balkanian. With his ideas, his interests, and his traditions, he belongs to the West.

Now let us apply these experiences to the other Slavonic nations, especially to the Poles and the Czechs. I think it is very easy to see now why we are right in claiming them for the Western side. Christianized as they were by missionaries of the Roman church, they have since shared, in a general sense, the destinies of the Teutonic and Romanic peoples. Like them this Roman Catholic branch of the Slavs has been imbued with the Latin spirit and has participated in those great movements common to West-

ern Europe. The renaissance and reformation, for example, played an important part in the history of the Poles and the Czechs.

THUS I hope to have shown that the problem of this cultural duality in Europe is at bottom a problem of ecclesiastical or religious history. Much is spoken of the inheritance of antiquity in modern times, of our indebtedness to antiquity, and so on. I think we may see a feature of antique life, the contrast between Rome and Greece, surviving in this cultural contrast in a metamorphosis.

PRESENT VIEW

A FEW words may be added as to the present state of things. Of course today the gulf between West and East is neither as wide nor as deep as it was when in the sixteenth century Western travelers began to discover Russia as later on Africa was discovered. We possess some English reports on Russia from that time which give a most striking picture of the impressions the English travelers received at Moscow. To them, Russia, or Muscovy, was simply an oriental country, different from Europe in every point.

Since that time of almost complete cultural isolation much has been done from the Russian side to span the gulf. The movement in Russia known under the name of "Europeanization" was an intentional approach to Western methods of technique first, then of education, administration, and social life. This movement is traditionally, although not quite correctly, associated with the name of Peter the Great. It is true that his autocratic will did very much for the cultural assimilation; he was the most bitter and most active foe of the Byzantine tradition. But he is only the powerful spon-

sor of a long historical process which had begun before and has been going on since his time. Europeanization is one of the perennial problems of Russia during the last two centuries. It has been pushed, and it has also been fought. A certain school of political philosophers and mystics (Slavophiles) rallied to the idea of a special divine mission of orthodox Russia, of Holy Russia, which should not be spoiled by imitating the heretic West. These enthusiasts, if they dreamt of a Europe united in culture and religion, dreamt of it in terms of the triumph of Greek orthodoxy over the Roman Catholicism and Protestantism.

These dreams are over. The problem has been ultimately settled by the Russian revolution. The Russian church, the principal bearer of orthodox Eastern tradition, has been destroyed. The fateful twenty years of anti-religious regime in Russia can not be wiped out. The young generation is out of any contact with the forms of life and with the ideas of their parents and their forefathers. The destruction has been so complete that orthodox tradition is not likely to become again a factor in the cultural life of Russia.

THE course of modern Russia is as decidedly towards assimilation to the West as under Peter the Great. It should not be forgotten that the code which has replaced the laws of orthodox religion, the doctrine of Marxist socialism, is of Western origin itself. The modern ideal of Russia has been formulated some years ago in Stalin's slogan "to overtake and to surpass Europe." We can not possibly know whether or when he will achieve it. But in spite of the proud form of this slogan it is clear that the East has ultimately surrendered to Western ideas.

Experimenting with Community Study

LOREN S. WOOLSTON

WHAT do your students know about their own community? Educators have been asking this question for some time, and with increasing point. It leads, further, directly to another question. What ought they to know? In a small village the answer to the first question might be: "All about it." On the other hand, there is some direct evidence and much subjective opinion that the teacher in a large city would have to say: "Not much, except in their own neighborhoods." The answer to the second question—What ought they to know?—is the more difficult, because it can not be answered except in relation to the complex of aims, values, and methods in social studies instruction.

It is obvious that a knowledge of one's own community is necessary for social competence in it. We have presumed that history, geography, civics, and economics, as organized bodies of knowledge and as school subjects, took care of the matter of general social competence. We have added the hope that, as pupils grow into maturity, they will transfer their general insights into specific understandings of a particular community. Finally, in the belief that such easy confidence in results is not justified, we have

A teacher in the public schools and chairman of the curriculum committee of Rochester, New York, describes the plan adopted in that city for community education in the eighth and ninth grades.

come to believe it necessary to give more attention to the community itself. Such a development would not, of course, substitute community study for wider areas of knowledge, but it would capitalize the community as a crisscross of social relations and problems in action.

Challenged by a study indicating lack of pupil knowledge of their own communities in New York state,¹ the Rochester curriculum committee examined its own local situation in the spring of 1938 and decided experimentally to recommend some modifications in the city high school program. At that time, and temporarily because of recent shifts in courses of study, Rochester high schools offered very little in the way of community study.

As part of its task, the curriculum committee constructed a Test of Community Knowledge which was made to fit this particular community. Many items were taken directly or adapted from the Price-Steadman community affairs test, which was given as part of the Regents' Survey Into the Character and Cost of Education in New York State. The Rochester test of a hundred items included questions on local history, geography, population, government, economic and cultural life, and miscellaneous information. It was given in the spring of 1938

¹This study was made as part of the social studies investigation for the Regents' Inquiry Into the Character and Cost of Education in New York State. Partial findings have been reported orally by officers of the Inquiry, but the full social studies report is to be published this fall. The Test on Community Affairs that was used was prepared especially for this purpose by Roy A. Price and Robert F. Steadman of Syracuse University. The test was not given in Rochester.

in all the city high schools to 1,900 pupils in the eighth, ninth, and twelfth grades. The median scores for the city were: eighth grade—58, ninth grade—63, and twelfth grade—68. The test results seem to show (1) that the pupils lacked a knowledge of items that the committee felt ought to be asked, although the scores are not discouraging in view of the fact that the material had not been taught; (2) that most of the information was "picked up" outside of social studies classes and probably outside of school; (3) that the increase in community knowledge from grades eight to twelve was slight; (4) that pupils were more familiar with matters touching their out-of-school experience, such as the laws governing bicycle safety equipment, than with matters of organized adult experience, such as government and labor unions.

Accepting these results as evidence of need for instruction, Rochester now offers at the eighth- and ninth-grade levels systematic but incidental community study, which has been fitted into existing courses.

EIGHTH GRADE

THE eighth-grade course is an epochal history of the United States. It recognizes that "boys and girls are more interested in what happened than in why it happened," and it gives them the charm and glamour of a dramatic story of settlement in new and strange lands. The course aims to give the general picture of this country "in a broad sweep, devoid of functional details, but rich in heroes, heroic deeds, and the march of many peoples into the fusion of a nation."²

The nine units are: The New World Which Europeans Found in Their Search for Trade Frontiers; The Age of the Conquistadors (1402-1607); The Age of the Puritan and Pilgrim Fathers (1607-1700); The Age of Colonial America (1700-1765); The Age of Great Change (1765-1815); The Age of Accomplishment (1815-1860); The

Age of Turmoil (1860-1890); The Age of Acquisition (1890-1918); Our Modern America (1918-1938).

DURING the curriculum revision, the city historian, Dr Dexter Perkins of the University of Rochester, offered the services of his staff in the preparation of a series of chapters on local history for the eighth-grade course of study. These chapters have been written and are now being prepared in quantity for classroom use. They correspond with the periods of the above units, and they show the pupils what was happening locally during the period that has just been studied nationally. The four chapters are: The Genesee Country and New France During the Age of the Puritan and Pilgrim Fathers (to follow Unit III); England and France in the Genesee Country (to follow Unit IV); Fifty Years of Change in the Genesee Country (to follow Unit V); and The Birth of the City (to follow Unit VI). The four chapters total about fifty pages, and at the end of each chapter is a bibliography and a list of historic markers.

LOCAL history is thus included in the eighth year but is kept distinctly subordinated to the main thread of the national story. In order to make this supplementary study possible and to speed up the teaching of the course, a unit on government, which does not appear in the summary of units above, was transferred to the ninth year, and topics were indicated elsewhere in the course for less extensive treatment.

The appendix of the revised eighth-grade syllabus contains a list of twenty-five points of historical interest in Rochester that can be visited by classes, or by individuals or small groups as out-of-school activities.

NINTH GRADE

THE ninth-grade course was also revised in 1938. It was built upon the assumption that attention should center "upon the characteristics and problems of life today.

²*An Epochal History of the United States*. Rochester: Board of Education, 1938.

It is not held that ninth-grade pupils can solve our fundamental problems, but the need for intelligent citizenship demands that we begin, as early as possible, a study of the social framework within which these problems exist." ³ The course had previously been "directed at the world-at-large" without much emphasis upon the local community or the United States. It seemed desirable now to begin with the immediate community in each unit and work outward to the larger community of world relationships. "It is felt that community study is justified, at this grade level, on the basis of the practical knowledge of day-to-day living which it should yield, and as a method of bringing together the more generalized concepts of society through concrete pictures of this community as a living laboratory of social organization." In this way community study is regarded as worthy of direct attack, but it does not become the criterion of organization of an entire course. The four units are: You and Your Community (including geography, population, family, religion, education, and recreation); Modern Economic Life; Modern Government; and Modern International Relations.

It should be noted that in Unit I there are included those aspects of the life of this community which it was thought ought to be sampled, but which would not conveniently fit into the other units.

QUICKLY it was seen that, if this emphasis should be given to the course, study materials would not be available for teachers or pupils unless the committee provided them. This led to the preparation of a thirty-five-page Supplement of Community Data which is now used in sets in the classrooms. This includes data on the city and county populations, nativity, size, gain-

ful workers, income and cost of living of families, church membership, vital statistics, local hospitalization plan, general divisions of occupations, wages, employment and unemployment, city and county government, and local imports, exports, and tariff collections. For its preparation written materials or estimates were supplied by the Bureau of Municipal Research, Real Estate Board, Federation of Churches, the Catholic Diocese, a local rabbi, the Civic Committee on Unemployment, the City Corporation Council, the County Manager, and the local Chamber of Commerce. Other sources used were the federal Census, volumes of the Rochester Historical Society, *Intercity Differences in Costs of Living* by the Social Research Division of WPA, *Monthly Labor Review* of the federal Department of Labor, and the local Health Bureau.

The eleven city high schools are reasonably well supplied with materials for studying the local community aspects of the ninth-grade course. In addition to the Supplement of Community Data, each school receives forty copies of the monthly research bulletin of the Bureau of Municipal Research and has several library copies of *Rochester and Monroe County* by the Federal Writers' Project of WPA. Also, most schools have volumes of the Rochester Historical Society, the Centennial booklets, and miscellaneous pamphlets. The Federal Writers' Project is now preparing a study of "Racial Groups in Rochester" under the sponsorship of the board of education, and other studies are being planned. Further, the schools are receiving the regular monthly or occasional reports from the Civic Committee on Unemployment, the City Health Bureau, and the Council of Social Agencies, and quarterly reports from the Public Relations Division of the Rochester Department of Commerce.

³*An Introduction to the Contemporary World.* Rochester: Board of Education, 1938.

Education's New World of the Air

ARTHUR OPPENHEIMER

RADIO listeners are a varied lot. There are those who are immune to things serious. They want always to be amused, to free themselves from reality. They look for entertainment or sedative. To them the radio day is a cavalcade of dance bands, variety shows, and comedy patter.

There is also a small company of listeners with a special intellectual curiosity. They will lend their ear to torpid discussions and lectures on all manner of serious themes, if they contribute something to an understanding of the world.

Then there is the vast body of middle-of-the-roads. They want to be entertained. They have no special desire to listen and learn, but they will derive pleasure from a serious program, if it catches their interest and moves swiftly. They will respond to a news commentator who makes the news easy and quick. They may even listen to a serious talk, if it is effectively delivered by a personality of reputation.

The particular kind of broadcasting found in any country at any time is de-

termined by the characteristics of the prevailing system of radio ownership and control. To understand the purposes, potentialities, and limitations of general or educational broadcasting in the United States it is necessary to keep in mind American methods of radio ownership and control. In most foreign countries radio is owned and operated by the government. Broadcasting is designed to maintain the status of the political group in power. The programs may, in some cases, reach a higher cultural average than American programs, but not without great concomitant losses in freedom of the air. In the United States it is most desirable to seek improvement of service and standards from the radio industry itself; that government control is, at best, a "gamble for perfection," with our future at stake, few realistic observers of today's world can deny.

At present a commercial station may arrange and finance an educational program in several ways. The program department of the station itself may prepare a program or series of programs, for example the NBC Music Appreciation Hour under the direction of Walter Damrosch. The station may seek the services of an educational agency in presenting a program or series of programs, for example, "Education in the News" presented by the United States Office of Education. Programs of this second type are usually broadcast as sustaining programs and are not notable for imagination or grasp of radio techniques. Occasionally an advertiser may sponsor a program or series of programs of educational value, as for example

If visual instruction in the social studies advances slowly, the use of the radio is scarcely getting under way. Yet no one doubts that the coming quarter century will bring striking development of this new medium. The author, formerly a high school teacher, is now associated with the National Broadcasting Company.

the General Motors Sunday Evening Concert or the talks by Dorothy Thompson that are sponsored by a cigarette company. It does not matter greatly whether a program of educational value is sponsored by a commercial company or sustained by the station. What is important is the effect of the programs on the listener.

RADIO METHOD

TO entertain the various groups is no easy task. To help them to learn and grow is even more difficult. There are two factors that must underlie all attempts to educate listeners. The problem of educational radio becomes much simpler when we face two factors squarely. First, radio is a strange new medium which demands new formulas and fresh techniques that bear little relation to schoolroom practice. Radio must be met on its own terms. Second, education on the air must take its lead from the unique advantages of radio with which other agencies of communication can hardly compete, most especially the element of timeliness. The raw materials of educational radio lie chiefly in the immediate problems of the day, the ordinary and extraordinary life of today's world. The timeliness of newsbroadcasting and news comment makes tomorrow's newspaper and next week's newsreel and newsmagazine seem like so much moth-y antiquity.

The simplest type of newsbroadcasting is the presentation of the news as it breaks on the station's ticker. Reports usually consist of a meager summary of the entire news item without editorial comment but are valuable in transmitting facts speedily in concise form. Since there is not time to present all the news, the station editor culls from the hundred-odd reports available a few significant items.

A further adaptation of journalism in radio is the dramatization of the news. Best known is the March of Time program, first broadcast in March, 1931. As expertly designed and executed a program as radio has developed, the March of Time has held its

place on the air for seven consecutive years, rolling up a total of more than four hundred weekly broadcasts of reenactments of world events of the week.

The March of Time has been worked out skillfully in terms of sound. Radio's technicians of illusion are the sound-effects men. They are the makers of the radio wind and rain and thunder. They are the movers of radio's scenery. They convert the airwaves into the turbulent waters of the Mississippi, a Spanish battlefield, a stormy Congressional session. The March of Time is their jubilee. So voluminous is their equipment for the weekly broadcast that their meager, visible audience is all but crowded out of the studio. Essential to the program too is plausible simulation of the voices of the great and the near-great in the week's news. One actress learns to mimic with skill Eleanor Roosevelt, the Duchess of Windsor, Madame Chiang Kai-Shek. One actor plays from week to week Stalin, Senator Borah, Haile Selassie. Another plays Hitler and Dizzy Dean. Musicians fade in and out with music that sets the emotional tone of the reenactments. The distinctive voice of the narrator (his famous line: "Time Marches On!") binds the constituent parts into a unified whole. The program is the product of able journalists who have astutely adapted their ideas to sound.

The second important reason for the success of the program is the fact that it lies in the field where radio best contributes to education—the life of the present. It is possible that the most fruitful study of history can begin with the here and now, in the problems of the present. We are most likely to become increasingly intelligent concerning contemporary problems by giving ear to current affairs, by developing our thought about current affairs.

An enormous amount of research goes into the making of the March of Time. Written from reports of the great press associations, it is backed by reports of special correspondents who dig out other essential information. They are careful in checking

facts and are cagey in getting at revealing details. The chief limitation of the program is the tendency to melodramatize and exaggerate conflicts.

THE news as it breaks on the station's ticker clamors for interpretation and understanding. Ready to simplify complex problems for listeners is the news commentator, who takes the world news of the day, ties it up with the news of yesterday, and tries to tell what it all means. He draws upon a background of personal experience. He is probably a former newspaperman. He has probably traveled widely. He may have acted as foreign correspondent.

The news commentator must put on a good show. He is somewhat handicapped by the necessity of always being amusing and interesting. Fortunate it is, however, that almost all major problems in the news have an angle of popular interest. Approaching the significant and complicated facts of the news from their angle of popular interest, he can help his audience see and evaluate the real problems of life today.

Every commentator has his own point of view. He must be brief. He must, therefore, choose from hundreds of items a few of special interest. His choice will inevitably reflect his point of view—the items he selects, the ones he discards, those he plays up or down. Not alone in his editing of the script, but by inflection of voice, perhaps wholly unconscious, the commentator reveals his point of view.

Some commentators are not so much concerned with the daily news as with personalities of current interest, with the history behind surface events or with editorial comment close on the heels of important news. Dorothy Thompson's *People in the News*, Cesar Saerchinger's *Story Behind the Headlines*, H. V. Kaltenborn's *Headlines and By-lines* have all built up large followings.

There is room for further development in going back of the news and in casual comment on aspects of life today. Eleanor Roosevelt's series of weekly broadcasts last

year seemed to many to be unaffected and entertaining commentary and interview. Actually her accounts of life in the White House, her travels, her discussions with friends were far more than that. A sophisticated viewpoint coupled with a simple and casual style can be very attractive on the air. Hendrick Willem van Loon tried it with some success. The late Will Rogers on the air was ostensibly a simple and unaffected raconteur. Actually his casual comment was often a shrewd presentation of what life is like. Jay Franklin's *State of the Nation* is a stimulating series of reports on life in America today, the product of a roving reporter who gathers his news at first hand from various points in the country.

Talks are aired on almost every subject known to man. Of especial value are those which present various viewpoints by leading figures on vital topics of life today. Radio today offers talent in great abundance. Hardly an important national or world figure has escaped the microphone, from Shaw and Einstein to Hitler and Mussolini.

A GREAT handicap to the man behind the microphone is an audience composed of individuals or small groups listening in their homes. He has little chance to get the feel of the audience, to sway a crowd through a keen knowledge of crowd psychology. Shrewd showmen that they are, Hitler and Mussolini never broadcast without a roaring crowd to accompany them. Almost all radio comedians use the same device. The record shows, however, that a few astute spellbinders have done well without the aid of a visible audience.

TODAY when radio appeals to ear alone, speakers must be chosen with the greatest care. It is unfortunate that intellectual big-wigs too often fall flat on the air—unfortunate, too, that shallow thinkers and zealous spellbinders may have an "unfair" advantage. The greatest experts in any field will not be effective on the air, if voice and personality are not suited to the microphone. A

case in point: While last year's controversy over President Roosevelt's Supreme Court proposal was raging, many pros and cons flocked to the microphone. Charles A. Beard came to the defense of the measure. Strong argument though his was in print, it was ineffective on the air. Dorothy Thompson later presented a strong argument against the measure, but she has a distinct advantage over Dr Beard in her striking radio voice and personality.

To have and hold a large audience, the radio speaker must be painstaking in the writing and delivery of his talk. Just what makes a good radio speaker? There are plenty of names: Dorothy Thompson, H. V. Kaltenborn, Deems Taylor, F. P. A., Clifton Fadiman, Walter Pirkin, the late Will Rogers, Eleanor Roosevelt, Jay Franklin, and others. Most of them are distinguished by the qualities that make good journalists. They have a lively sense of words. They have ability to get at the revealing details. They have a keen awareness of what is happening in the world today, a genuine enthusiasm, and wide experience in their particular field.

TO get away from straight talking, good use is made of interviews and conversations. These are valuable in handling outstanding persons whose radio voice and personality are poor, but who should not therefore be debarred from the air. These devices prove effective in the handling of a John Dewey or a Gandhi. The burden of clarity can be carried by a second skilled speaker who knows the radio ropes. Here is a job for commentators and announcers who have something more than good vowels, who can stand up to the great and the near-great and help them express themselves concisely and precisely.

On the air are many forums in which public questions are discussed from opposing points of view. Outstanding is America's Town Meeting of the Air, which calls itself an adaptation of the old town meeting idea to radio. The old town meeting was one of

America's most democratic institutions. Common problems were discussed and debated by all the citizens of the town. For one hundred years the town meeting was an active force for democratic education, but from a local institution it has suddenly grown by means of radio into a great nationwide forum, participated in weekly during its twenty-week season by several prominent speakers, by many of its studio audience of a thousand, followed by some three million listeners in their homes.

Speakers during the past season included Senator Gerald Nye, Dorothy Thompson, Hugh Johnson, Norman Thomas, Robert H. Jackson, Senator Robert La Follette, James Roosevelt. Speakers and audience discussed, among other things: "How Can Government and Business Work Together?" "America and the European Situation," "What Does Democracy Mean?" "Which Way out of the Recession?" and "Is Our Public Opinion Controlled by Propaganda?"

THE presentation of special or unusual events when and as they actually occur is one of the unique potentialities of radio. Hitler speaks in Berlin and his voice is heard in the United States before it reaches the crowd in the auditorium. A British king explains his renunciation of the British throne, and he is heard around the world. The Congress holds its opening session and is heard in thousands of American homes. The Osage Indians stage a pow-wow on their Oklahoma reservation and are heard from coast to coast.

International broadcasts offer much exciting material to the short-wave listener. Here are international politics and intrigue in the open. That freedom of expression as practised in the United States does not exist in many countries is evident to the short-wave listener. Hitler's invasion of Austria resulted in an amazing series of rebroadcasts. His speeches were rebroadcast and cleverly translated. While the crowd shouted after each group of sentences, a commentator at

Hitler's side translated his words for the benefit of English and American listeners.

RADIO IN THE SCHOOLS

SOME persons have pictured a vast mechanized system of teaching by radio, with a few "master" teachers teaching subjects from a central point and broadcasting into hundreds of classrooms. The classroom teacher then becomes an overseer who carries out routine instructions. This whole idea is in contradiction to modern trends in educational philosophy and psychology. Modern educators pay more attention to the individual child and less attention to traditional subject matter. Teaching must take into account individual differences among pupils in abilities, needs, and interests, and it is the classroom teacher who is in the best position to know these, modifying the curriculum to suit the individual child. Modern educators give more and more attention to the personality and character development of the student—emphasizing the building of intelligence, social responsibility, and adequate self-direction. This trend demands a personal relation between teacher and student, as well as the building up of situations favorable to development along these lines. Furthermore, progressive theory and practice in education emphasize the value of activity—learning by doing—as opposed to passive absorption by watching and listening. Radio listening is passive. Overmuch listening is perhaps undesirable for motor-active children.

HAS then radio no place in the schools? The answer is that it has. Radio should be used in so far as it is compatible with classroom objectives set up by teacher and students. There will be many things which the teacher and students can achieve by means of radio and which are not otherwise easily available. In the field of music, radio will be invaluable. In current affairs, unbiased news reports and informed interpretation of news will be valuable, particularly where newspapers are scarce. History in the

making can be participated in by means of actuality broadcasts. Many special events broadcasts can be used in almost any field, supplementing classroom activity. In presenting authenticity in any field, radio can make important contributions. Politicians and poets, captains of industry and scientists can all be met by proxy, with an authenticity and sense of reality that no book or newspaper can offer.

There are several types of broadcasting which reach the schools. First is the program sent out especially for the schools (for example, the NBC Music Appreciation Hour). Second are any other programs on the air during school hours which may lend themselves to school use. In addition, the schools have the responsibility for developing students' taste and discrimination in their leisure listening.

A FRUITFUL enterprise for the schools is the development of radio program producing units. These units, composed of students, can produce programs for broadcasting. These programs are of purely local interest in most cases and are a legitimate function of the local broadcasting station. There is occasion for much worthwhile activity, and students have an opportunity for real learning.

RADIO SUCCESS AND RESPONSIBILITY

THE awakening of public interest in current social, economic, and political affairs is largely due to economic depression with the consequent intrusion of government into the affairs of everyday living, but radio has played a large part in the process. News broadcasts have served to inform, news commentators have interpreted and simplified news, actuality broadcasts have dragged national and world affairs into the open, broadcasts by most of the world's leading political and cultural figures have all served to increase the public's eagerness to understand what is happening in today's world, why it happens, and what it means.

In the devotion of dominant time to cur-

rent national and world affairs radio finds its chief educational service to our time. Today when the world finds itself in grave social, political, and economic difficulties, more and better public education provides the only safe road towards progress and prosperity. The schools must play their part, but we find that some two-thirds of the American people have finished their schooling. There is placed upon radio a grave responsibility for continued public education. Full attention to the vital and immediate problems of our day, together with devotion of a large place to controversy and difference of opinion, constitutes the supreme educational service that radio can render.

Curious notions sometimes exist as to what educational radio really is. To some it means guessing games, question boxes, spelling bees, and other sugar-coating devices to make information palatable to wide audiences. While such programs might come under the heading of parlor amusements, they are hardly to be classed as contributions to real learning and growth.

Far more tenable is the belief that everything which goes out over the air is educational—for good or ill. Radio, mighty medium of mass communication, is intriguing because of its power in molding people's attitudes and influencing their behavior. Falacious it is to assume that a series of well planned and produced "educational" programs fulfill radio's educational obligations. The patter of the dialect comedian who reaches a nation-wide audience may do more to shape attitudes toward racial groups than an intelligently designed "educational" program. The melodrama that infers that, when we have caught all our criminals, we shall have solved our crime problems may do more to shape listener attitudes than a serious program on the same theme. The words

of the very-prevalent popular songs may influence our behavior more than we know. It is quite obviously foolish to make any sharp distinction between programs which are "educational" and those which are not.

There can be no doubt that radio has had a real success in the education of listeners in the field of music. Dependent upon sound alone, music loses little by radio transmission. Each year has seen more careful control over conditions under which music is picked up. Each year has seen greater musical discrimination on the part of listeners. In part, success has been due to pioneering in the teaching of music appreciation by Walter Damrosch and others. It is due more, perhaps, to the mere fact that radio is able to make music available so widely and so well. There has been less accomplishment in the arts other than music. Definitely restricted today to the medium of sound, the other arts await the coming of radio's second sense with the development of television.

All in all there is a wealth of available offerings of all types from which listeners may choose their radio fare. The wise listener will plan his listening to get the most from it. To turn the radio on in spare moments, twirl the dial until we get something which strikes our fancy is not intelligent listening. A brief schedule for the day or evening made out in advance will eliminate the chance of missing valuable programs. Although information regarding programs is somewhat meager, guidance can be found in most newspapers and in some magazines. To set the dial at one favorite station or to tune in on a few favorite programs is not efficient listening. The listener should sample a wide variety of programs in order to be better able to select programs which best contribute to his living and learning.

Experiments in Teaching Ancient History

MARTHA A. EGELSTON AND ESTHER S. HOFFMAN

WITH the autumn of 1937 the ancient history course at the New York State College for Teachers at Albany became an experimental course. Up to that time this course was a rather unpopular six-hour elective with an average enrollment of twenty students each semester. The departmental reorganization that made this course a one-semester required course for history and social studies students prompted us to rearrange the subject matter, to adopt a new method of presentation, and to change from the old "quiz" method to the more modern socialized recitation system to see whether we could not make ancient history a "live" course.

The course was given four times during the past year, with a total enrollment of two hundred and forty. This was twice the number of students actually required to take the course. These other students came from many departments: Latin, English, library, German, physical education, and commerce. Therefore, whatever results were obtained from this experiment do not reflect merely

the work of students specializing in the social studies but also reflect the work of a group of students of widely varying major interests.

OBJECTIVES

UNDER the previous method of treatment our objectives might have been summed up in this way: to teach the social, economic, and political history of mankind from the beginning of historic times up to Charles the Great. Under the new plan our objectives are much more extensive, yet much more practical.

First of all our aim is to teach students the vastness of the extent of time since mankind began his various activities upon this planet. We try to have students appreciate the fact that the Egyptian pyramids were, roughly, as far removed in time from the Romans as we are from the Romans, that the Swiss Lake Dwellers were four times as far away, in time, from the Romans as we are from the Romans.

Our second aim is to teach not merely the evolutionary character of man's progress, which would be only a regular progression of pattern, but also its kaleidoscopic nature. That is to say: progress may reach a peak in a given place and then a recession may occur. Then a new high point may be reached by some other people. The pattern of culture is not simple. It is complex. The theme is ever varied and ever changing. For example the Egyptians developed a remarkably high standard of law in international relations. This standard fell and was not again attained until the time of the Romans. The

This experimental course was given in the New York State College for Teachers at Albany and directed towards preparing teachers to teach ancient history, but the theory and methods are directly applicable to high schools. Miss Egelston is instructor in ancient history and Miss Hoffman a graduate of the college with a major in history.

Roman standards of law broke up and were not re-attained until the present. Yet each peak went higher than its predecessor. Standards for all human activities, surgery, justice, administration, art, science, and literature, may be translated to a graph; but the peaks will not all be reached by the same people or in the same century.

Our third aim is to show how the modern science of archaeology has opened up to us new vistas of the past, enlarging our scope of ancient history from 500 B.C. through 800 A.D. to at least 10,000 B.C. through 800 A.D. Archaeologists, since the time of Schliemann, have written the general outlines of at least six thousand years of history which were completely unknown as late as 1860.

Our fourth aim is to teach students where to find relative material of the sort needed to study the past. For example, we teach the use of periodicals for material concerning recent archaeology, how to read the literature of the times, such as Greek plays, how to find the ideas of the people of those times, what religious writings directly pertain to the history of mankind—not to mention the scores of secondary books and famous articles and pamphlets.

Our fifth aim is to teach enough of the framework of ancient history so that, wherever they find them, students may read comments on King Tutankhamen intelligently, or Ikhnaton, or understand the causes for the terrible modern unrest of the Near East, or appreciate the emphasis laid upon the Greeks by scholars up to the past century or realize the significance of the attempted "Roman" revival in modern Italy.

Our sixth aim is to teach that, although the men and women who made this past are gone and almost all forgotten, nevertheless, their handiwork lies all around us. Our lives are enshrouded in the mists of their dreams. The orange juice that I drink for breakfast is a tangible result of all of their attempts to grow better fruit, find more fertile soil, achieve a stable government, and find means of more safe and economical

transportation. Our very college is the product of an endless chain of activities extending from the present into the past through attempts to make a free country, to find new frontiers, to make a teaching profession, to make books, to print, to make paper, and so ad infinitum.

Our seventh aim is to show students that although the statesmen of the world today solve political and national problems in an apparently new and sensational way (for example Hitler's restoration of Germany to world power, or Mussolini's constitutional rise to dictatorial power), nevertheless statesmen of antiquity used the same methods to solve their contemporary problems (for example Pericles' transformation of an all-but-destroyed Athens into the Athenian empire, or Caesar's constitutional rise to dictatorial power). All politicians, leaders, and statesmen since the beginning of historic times have had the same genius in shaping events according to their own interpretations regardless of the unbiased facts, thus presenting the appearance of being right legally.

Our eighth aim is to encourage students to collect illustrative material which will be usable in actual class room teaching in the secondary schools.

UNITS

WE used the unit method, instead of using the chronological method of presentation. The material of ancient history is arranged under the following units with one or more of the important specific objectives of each unit given.

1. Geography. To show (a) that man's gradual conquest of his physical environment enables him to find interest and profit through leisure time; (b) the things men did in ancient times to improve upon their natural environment.

2. Civilization. To show (a) how culture patterns were formed, and how many of these patterns fused to create a civilization, or disintegrated leaving a decadent people; (b) the nature of progress through antiquity.

3. Migrations. To show (a) how population movements affected all peoples living in ancient times; (b) how the Greek and Germanic migrations changed the course of Occidental history; (c) the economic nature of imperialism; (d) ancient frontiers.

4. Armies, Armaments, and Militarism. To (a) analyze the causes of warfare, emphasizing in particular the question of food supply and growing population; (b) show effects of warfare upon society and its members; (c) familiarize students with the major wars of antiquity.

5. The State. To show (a) how the political organization of society changes to meet the economic needs of society; (b) how changes in the political organization of a state vary according to the already established culture patterns of a people.

6. Biography. (This unit has been eliminated. However, its subject matter has been divided among the other units according to the principal work or interest in the character to be studied, for example Julius Caesar in the unit on the State or Alexander the Great in the unit on Migrations).

7. Art. To (a) show mankind has through leisure attempted to make his surroundings more harmonious; (b) familiarize students with some of the great masterpieces of art produced before 800 A.D.

8. Archaeology. To show (a) how scientists are quite literally "digging up the past"; (b) how modern scientists are recording history made during many millennia before the birth of Christ.

9. Science. To show (a) the slow growth of knowledge; (b) how the six major industrial revolutions of antiquity made greater populations possible; (c) the Hellenistic era as a pre-view to the renaissance and the nineteenth century.

10. Standards of living. To show (a) it as conditioned by man's food supply; (b) the relation between morality and food supply.

11. Religion. To show (a) historical origins of the great religions which have been established; (b) how concepts of the infinite widen with each increase of knowledge.

12. Philosophy. To show how mankind has coordinated various elements of knowledge into many systems of thought.

13. Law. To show (a) gradual expansion of law to meet new needs of society; (b) ultimate purpose of law: increased social justice.

PROCEDURE

SINCE, to our knowledge, no textbook existed which treated this subject matter from these viewpoints, it was necessary for the instructor to make a project book as a guide for the students. This project book contains suggestions for study relative to each unit and suggestions for special investigations and research which would be timely to present to the socialized recitation groups. Likewise are given specific page references to a standard text in ancient history which will contain the basic historic background for each week's work. During the coming year similar references for each unit will be given to each of three standard texts, in order that the student can be familiar with more than one author's viewpoints. The project book contains a series of outline maps and chart forms designed to give the student experience in map construction and in correlating events and histories. Each student completes a map or chart each week. The project book also contains lists of references to many books related to the subject. Students are advised to read deeply concerning one particular subject as well as widely concerning the entire unit in question.

SO far as is practical we use the self-teaching quiz method. Once a week students meet in groups of twenty with the instructor present merely to record marks. One student gives a five-minute written objective test. One student is chairman and other students present orally their special studies of new material, with their interpretations and conclusions. The chairman of this socialized recitation group is more than a presiding officer. He not only calls upon students for their special studies during the class hour, but he supervises the selection

and organization of these special studies during the week so that these individual topics will relate to each other as well as the unit. This "socialized recitation" scheme as developed by Professor A. W. Risley, head of the history department at the New York State College for Teachers, has worked out remarkably in these small groups during the past year. Once in a while it was necessary for the instructor to conduct an old style quiz to bring the students back from "wandering," but for the most part students accept the responsibility of their "self-teaching."

We have given every variety of test to check upon the actual learning process, and the results have been most gratifying. Surprise objective factual tests have indicated that the retention of subject matter over a period of three months is higher than under a chronological method of study. The subjective examinations given at the end of the semester indicate a real grasp of the whole subject. Out of each class 30 per cent of the students wrote term papers based on individual research, knowing that these papers would have no effect whatsoever upon the final grade. It seems that students wrote these papers because they wanted to write them.

EVALUATION

AT the end of each semester students were invited to make suggestions concerning units, possible rearrangements of units, grouping of material and so on, which in their estimation would improve the

course. One of the first suggestions made was acted upon immediately at the beginning of the course the next semester. The unit on biography was eliminated, and the great leaders were studied when the units revealed their work. Another suggestion, which the instructor should have thought of in the beginning, was that the first full hour's lecture should give a view of the whole period of time we were to study. This suggestion was likewise acted upon at the beginning of the new course the following semester.

Many of the students suggested the addition of new units such as commerce, communication, trade, and cities. Many of the students thought that more time should be devoted to parts of some units such as the section on literature under the unit on Philosophy. Other suggestions were made concerning possible rearrangement of the individual units, but these the instructor deemed impractical.

Because of the high standard of results obtained in testing, the interest displayed by the students, and the possibility that certain further minor modifications can make the course even more successful, we intend to continue this experiment in teaching ancient history.

TEXTBOOKS

W. E. Caldwell, *The Ancient World*. New York: Farrar and Rinehart, 1937, the text used when only a single textbook was used.

E. M. Sanford, *The Mediterranean World in Ancient Times*. New York: Ronald Press, 1938.

A. A. Trever, *History of Ancient Civilization*. Vol. I. New York: Harcourt, Brace, 1936.

Practical Experiments in Student Government

GRACE M. ANDERSON

THE more one works with high school students, studies them seriously, and has faith in them, the more is one sincerely convinced that the surface of the possibilities of student government has barely been scratched. Too often what is called student government in high school is really a method for easier student-body control and not true training for life in a democracy. It is far from necessary to mention in passing that, in the complexity of government procedures today, the future citizen must, at all levels of school training, have more training in participation than in the mere memorization of facts about government. "We learn to do by doing" is just as applicable to taking part in a democracy as it is applicable to the laying of a good concrete walk or to the cooking of a good meal.

In training boys and girls for life in a democracy there is a broad field for experi-

mentation and evaluation of results. Someday the teacher-training institutions will awaken to their responsibilities in preparing teachers of the social studies, especially, for setting up and sponsoring student government. It may come to pass that this field will be the broader outgrowth of any, or all, guidance programs.

As the situation is today, there are very few high school teachers with any vision of their students' potentialities for actual living. On the contrary they continue to view their students as more or less satisfactory storehouses for facts and more facts, to be reproduced if, as, and when required for passing or failing marks and examinations.

ALONG what lines should experimentation take place? The procedures should, in my opinion, be according to the forms actually prevalent in our national, state, and city governments. Some modifications and adjustments must naturally be made to fit individual situations, but the basic procedures should run quite true to form. Let us consider the following: first, class or school elections; second, court procedures; third, conduct of meetings and organizations; and fourth, techniques of classroom teaching.

In the matter of elections provision should be made for the use of proportional representation, primaries, nominating conventions, registration of voters, and actual secret voting. It would be interesting to know just how many high schools throughout our country carry out all of these forms in their elections. To be sure ballots are printed with

There has been an increasing amount of discussion of the various means of training for citizenship in the schools and increasingly do the schools recognize this kind of training as a major responsibility. Here a teacher in the Grover Cleveland High School, New York City, suggests practical means of training by student participation in school and classroom government and procedure. The paper was read last June at a meeting of the National Conference on Student Participation in School Administration.

party candidates. Yet how many schools make provision for voting booths, with pencils therein to be used, with election boards, with watchers, with sealed ballot boxes, with a registration book in which each voter must sign his name before being given a ballot? It would be even more desirable to use voting machines in all the schools of localities where actual votes are cast by machine. If registration is necessary before a citizen can vote, then why not registration before student voters can vote? If registration is set up as a part of the voting procedure, one will be impressed greatly by the effect upon the student body. There should be, of course, certain days and hours for registration.

As far as I have been able to ascertain, anything that resembles civil service procedure of public governments is by practice unknown in our high schools. Generally, if I am right, teachers or "sponsors" select "service people" or call for volunteers. These school services correspond in a measure to the various city or town departments such as police, sanitation, and welfare.

I have tried a civil service procedure and was favorably impressed. The student body was informed that on a certain date there would be a written examination for the service squad positions. Application blanks had to be obtained and filled out. Student applications were accepted or rejected according to legibility and accuracy. The next step was to notify the candidates whose applications were accepted, and to each candidate was given a number to be used on the examination paper. They were warned that any paper with a name instead of the number would be thrown out. On the date set for the written examination the candidates were given the question papers consisting of about five questions dealing with practical school situations that any service squad officer would meet and have to handle. The teacher in charge of the school, who had nothing to do with the service squad, marked the papers. The candidates were notified of their ratings. The passing candidates' names were placed on an eligible list and appointed

to duty therefrom. The appointees proved successful on actual service and not one had to be removed.

A GAIN, very little work is apparently being done with student courts. This field offers much for experimental purposes. It does seem that here the best in our national, state, and city court techniques should be adapted for use in the schools. It may be that there should be one supreme court with a chief justice and associate justices with power to handle cases dealing with school rules and policies. Why not such a court to handle truancies, class cuts, social violations? Provision could easily be made for district or circuit courts. A court patterned after the state or city courts could handle such cases as disputes between students or traffic violations.

T HE student councils or general organizations in most instances are far from legislative bodies, if that is their purpose. True, motions and policies are argued pro and con. Yet actually how many of these bodies go through the law-making process? How binding are their decisions? Perhaps these are questions for serious consideration. Should students have practice in writing out bills carefully, studying the printed bill before voting on it and developing the ability to judge how a law will work out in practice by reading the words of an enactment? Or are student-council matters so insignificant that they are not worthy of the time and energy expended? Are they not fit subjects to serve as a basis for training for future responsibility? Here it seems to me is a field which offers much in important cooperation between student and faculty for the forming of school policy, but which is, nevertheless, almost completely neglected.

L AST, but by no means least, is student participation in the carrying out of classroom teaching techniques. In certain subjects, such as the social studies, English, and the natural sciences, much use can be made

of the committee system. Each student selects the committee on which he wishes to serve, and each committee selects its own chairman. Upon the chairman's shoulders rests the assigning of study topics and the handling of the group discussions. The teacher's part is to hold conferences with the chairmen group from time to time.

At the close of this semester's work in civics I asked the chairman of each committee to give his own opinion of the class procedure and to ask what seemed to him pertinent questions of that procedure. No well trained, experienced teachers could have done better. Let me list the comments:

(1) What can one do with the students who try to shirk their committee responsibilities, especially as the chairmen lack authority of enforcement?

(2) The committee work was far more interesting because each student had chosen the committee on which he wished to serve and was, therefore, particularly interested in that topic.

(3) The members felt more independence and responsibility in the way they could attack their work.

(4) The committee members felt a re-

sponsibility in sharing and cooperating with each other—each member also learned to work by himself.

(5) It was a new procedure to each student and, therefore, time was lost in getting started.

(6) There were not enough materials for study and library use.

(7) It was less boring to have four totally different topics discussed during each period—it was easier to pay attention and to concentrate.

May I plead for more interest and experimentation with practical citizenship training in our senior high schools? Various well equipped investigations are spending time and energy in experimenting with citizenship thinking, one of them, for instance, by using the movies for social studies discussions. Much time is being spent in economics classes discussing theoretically problems for which no one at the present time has a sane, safe answer. Other investigations are being made in many directions, and much time and money is being spent. Why, therefore, can we not have more time spent on well planned, definite citizenship living in schools?

Selection for Social Service

ETHEL S. BEER

SOcial service is a comparatively recent development of the attempts to heal the ills of mankind. Its roots are imbedded in the old-fashioned charity movements, but the scope has been enlarged. No longer is it considered enough to give alms as a palliative. The theory is that conditions should be improved permanently. This means not only helping to reorganize lives in the present but also aiming to better the world of the future. In such a program a choice group of people is necessary for any success at all.

The main responsibility for progressive improvement in the personnel of social service organization lies within the field of social service itself, but there are aspects of the matter that touch the teacher's responsibility for vocational guidance and for training pupils in a larger view of their obligations as possible board members, volunteers, and professional workers. Moreover some of the considerations discussed here apply also to other aspects of training pupils for their own future interests—church work for example.

Social service touches education at many points. Much of it is education. It relates directly to the social attitudes and responsibility with which teachers are concerned. As an important vocation it merits attention in guidance programs. The author has recently published a book on *The Day Nursery*.

MY quarrel with social service is that so far there has been little or no selection of the individuals supposed to carry out its far-reaching plans. The human factor has not been emphasized enough. It has been assumed that willingness alone fits any individual for social service as volunteer or as professional. Although the importance of personality in all human relations can not be denied, small attention has been paid to this factor in social service. There is little attempt to discover the type of person needed for the stupendous job and to analyze the motives of those to be accepted. It is a problem of selection as well as of education.

FINANCIAL STRUCTURE

PROBABLY the slipshod manner of selecting personnel is due in part to the peculiar financial construction of social service. The size of the field has increased until it has reached the proportions of big business; but the non-commercial basis of charity remains. The money is not invested for the purpose of realizing a return in cash, but for the sake of present and future effect on the lives of people. The record of this effect is the only indication of the value of any social service enterprise, and it is difficult to arrive at any such record. This very fact permits the attitude that this is a casual undertaking which does not require expert advice.

Also, since it takes a good deal of money to run these organizations, the possession of wealth is often the means of attaining positions of honor and responsibility. It is a

hard saying, but the fact is that those who have the wherewithal too often buy their way into the charmed circle of board members, where they have influence that they can use or misuse according to their own fancy. Moreover employees are dependent for their salaries on officials whose services are given without charge. Thus there is a caste system based on money.

ORGANIZATION OF PERSONNEL

THERE are three distinct groups in social service—the directors or board members, the volunteers, and the professionals. Technically, the directors control the whole situation. Their positions are honorary but carry a responsibility for collection and distribution of the cash. Their motives may range from a real interest in humanity to a desire to use the connection as a stepping stone to society with a capital S.

In considering the board members differentiation must be made between the two main trends in social service, that is, private philanthropies supported by funds collected by the directors and public undertakings supported by taxation.

Private organizations have a certain social nature. They still smack of old-fashioned charity in their method of electing their boards of managers. The stimulus often comes from some supposedly generous benefactor who wants to found a philanthropy and asks friends to join in an official capacity. They have approximately the same social status, are often related by blood, and regard board membership as a personal possession passed on almost like an hereditary title. Since to many persons wealth represents power that can be purchased, they are willing to give only where they can direct actual expenditure. In these circumstances it is easy to see how petty jealousies and private whims control many private social service enterprises.

Public welfare is different in that more often the directors are chosen because they are prominent in the social service world—including outstanding professionals as well

as the so-called "philanthropists." Unfortunately however, in this country at least, politics are very likely to determine decisions. Yet, if public welfare can ever prevent this, it should be better administered than private philanthropy.

VOLUNTEERS are supposed to join in the actual work. Their selection is also based on money. Almost anybody who can afford to work for nothing is taken on, for there is always more work than the professional can accomplish, and it is assumed that, if the staff can be enlarged without increased expense, the organization will profit. Rarely does the governing body calculate that the dilettante is usually costly in the end.

There is another angle. Frequently the volunteer has a connection with the board of managers, either through blood relation or through actual or potential membership in this body. In most cases there is also the possibility that the volunteer can help financially. Desire for social prestige may be behind the volunteer's interest in social service, but this in itself does not preclude the above-mentioned possibility. Knowing this, the paid staff is forced to put up with inefficient careless volunteers.

Moreover volunteers are too often wholly unable to do work of any real value. Yet many of them demand jobs requiring training, because monotonous tasks bore them. In a word, they are very likely to be only a nuisance because of their privileged position. How could it be otherwise in the circumstances?

PROFESSIONAL social service workers form the third group. They carry on most of the huge concern known as social service and are responsible for efficiency. Yet, because their very jobs depend on the laymen who are the directors, they are handicapped. On the other hand, as a vocation, social service carries a certain amount of distinction. It has come to be a recognized profession. In many positions the workers have comforts and privileges they would not otherwise en-

joy. To some, this two-sided role is confusing, which may partly account for the mixture of ingratiating yet arrogant characteristics often encountered in social service workers.

On the surface the situation as regards the professional looks rosy. In most instances there is no lack of training. One notable exception to this rule is in the day nursery field, where there still remain many heads who are nothing more than glorified housekeepers; but, on the whole, the pendulum has swung in the other direction. If any thing, training is overemphasized. Theories are fed wholesale to youngsters with no actual experience. Too often the training alone is considered adequate to make an executive.

Judging from what I have seen of social workers, there is little selection of those permitted to take this training. Prerequisite education is of primary importance, but slight attention is paid to the type. It is incongruous to me to meet a gum-chewing, sloppily dressed, rude mannered investigator visiting poor homes to preach better standards of living. Such workers can not gain respect even from those whom they serve. The social service workers I am criticizing are not the result of emergency programs. There were plenty of this type before the depression.

ONCE again the responsibility lies at the door of the directors. They have the say as to who shall hold the position. With absolutely no knowledge of social service, the board members claim to be capable of judging the employees from top to bottom. This is an unusual method of carrying on an enterprise to say the least, and it can not make for efficiency.

DESIRABLE CHANGE OF EMPHASIS

TO achieve a proper selection of workers there must be a change throughout the whole system. There is absolutely no reason why wealth should be the primary requisite for a director. Rarely does one person alone

or even that limited group known as managers support a social service organization entirely. There is a certain amount of truth in the idea that boards of managers do have to make up the deficit, but even this does not necessarily have to be taken from their own pockets—and often is not.

THE three groups in social service, that is, the directors, volunteers, and staff members, must meet on an equal basis. No one group can be responsible for the entire undertaking of social service as American society is constituted today. No matter what the financial arrangements are, whether the funds are raised by private initiative or public taxation, the eye of social service must be ever on the future. Workers, official, volunteer, and professional, must not only be imbued with the spirit of kindness but must have real breadth and understanding. They must know how to balance the details against the whole picture, the changes of the moment against the future good. The practical work of today must lay the foundation for the ideal state of tomorrow. The lessons of social service must become routine education—in the schools and outside the schools.

WHAT is needed on boards are individuals whose brains can grasp the administration of the organization. The purpose is to handle the finances not by bossing the details of expenditure but by trying to broaden the group of donators. Naturally the board members can not let the expenses grow beyond their means, but the appointment of conscientious, capable executives who have pride in their own reputation can safeguard against this. The duty of the board members carries not only the responsibility of advancement in their particular enterprise but an interest in the whole field. If they themselves understand the activities in relation to the background of social service, they can do a tremendous amount towards educating the public. Board members should educate themselves in the issues of social service. This does not mean predi-

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gested courses, planned especially for the lazy amateur. It means real study.

The objection to this statement of necessity will be that wealthy women with social ties will not take the trouble to learn and understand many aspects of each problem. Too much can not be expected of the older generation, but their time of service will come to an end shortly. On the other hand the youngsters in school today will be carrying the burden of the social service tomorrow; whatever attitudes they acquire now will affect their attitudes in the future. That is the responsibility of their present education and the hope of the future; and, once they are on the boards, they should be encouraged to continue with their studies in the direction specifically useful for social service.

There is another matter that I think is worth considering in connection with boards of control. I am speaking of those made up of women members rather than of business men. Men may not have enough time at their disposal, but at least they have some knowledge of working conditions. Many of the women, however, have no previous acquaintance with the professional woman and are inclined to treat her as an inferior no matter what are her antecedents. My opinion is that, if, within the board itself, there were some working women, there would be less patronage of the professional.

THE warning against trying to buy the right to boss a situation must be borne in mind in regard to volunteers also. The only excuse for accepting their services is that it is preparation for their own future. Not only should this volunteer service train them to be better board members, but it should enlarge their personal viewpoint and make them more understanding human beings. There can be real improvement only if the volunteer takes his or her task seriously. To this end selection must be made from those who will abide by regulations. Each applicant should be taken on for what-

ever job is open only if he or she can fill it adequately. What she is capable of doing, how long her services are of value, is not for her to decide on the strength of her desire. It should lie within the discretion of the head staff member, and the volunteer should be directly under the salaried supervisor.

Unquestionably, some volunteers can do more than routine tasks, but for this they need training. If they have not taken it before, they should start after they begin their service. According to ability and determination each may require very little or a good deal of preparation.

Because it is so important for prestige to be nullified, it seems to me that, as a rule, volunteers should have no official connection with the organization they serve. There are exceptional cases when the volunteer can be impersonal in attitude, but usually the drawback is insurmountable. Volunteers should come from an agency of some kind just as other workers do. They should not be accepted because of their intimacy with some board member. They should rely on personal worth not social status.

EXECUTIVE positions in social service carry immense responsibility and can be developed tremendously. Because I am most familiar with day nursery work I am going to illustrate from this field the lack of understanding of this fact. Some years ago I asked a board member about the head of her particular day nursery with which I had no connection. "Oh, it really doesn't matter who the Head is," was her answer. "One of our Lady Managers goes down almost every day."

Such an attitude must be overcome before day nurseries can really be efficient. Consider the chance that a day nursery has to influence children. It cares for them from morning until night at least five days a week, and it deals with them from every angle including the family background. Yet, because so few realize that the scope of the day nursery is large enough to be the nucleus of untold social service activities, the position

of the head is minimized. A nursery school teacher or a trained nurse may make an excellent day nursery supervisor, but not unless she has a much broader outlook than has come from her specialized training.

Board members must understand that they have nothing to do with the actual operation of their organizations, but along with this knowledge must come a comprehension of the qualities required for an executive. Then they should permit the executives to swing their own jobs, accounting specifically only for their expenses. These must be judged not only by the balance but by the results achieved in the work. There is no point in handling such people with suspicion. They are professional workers who, if they are the right kind, have pride in their reputations. The incapable will show up quickly enough, if given free rein.

My belief is that, if social service emphasized the right kind of executive, there would be less trouble about the rest of the staff. The head is always responsible for the employees and therefore should be permitted to choose them. Interference splits authority and thus impedes smooth running. Moreover the head ought to decide special applications of general policy within the organization. The excellence of the executive's judgment can be estimated by a survey of the whole picture but not always by details.

SELECTION AND PURPOSE

SOCIAL service is more comprehensive than charity, but it does not exclude it. It, too, requires interest and sympathy. For this reason the selection of professionals and volunteers is important. The unfit should be weeded out before they start their training—so far as this is possible. Some may be guided into other professions in the hope that they may broaden their viewpoint enough to make them eventual candidates for social service. For instance, the stringent discipline of a nurses training school might teach habits not learned in childhood. Possibly if social service demanded either a college education or a nurses training, or both, it could pick and choose the applicants better, because of their greater maturity. Usually it is easier to judge an adult than an adolescent. Besides as a rule youth cannot sum up human situations accurately. It takes experience to do this, even with the right personality.

Is it too fantastic to think that the army of people in social service can all work in the direction of proper selection and then proper education? It is the leaders after all who guide all movements. Starting with selection here, eventually the mass will follow in their footsteps. This happens in other fields. Why not in social service?

An English Teacher Tackles Modern European History with the Low IQ'S

ADA LEFKOWITH

EVEN the door seemed to close with sympathetic understanding and utter relief. The thing I had been dreading had happened, and, as in the case of Raskolnikov in *Crime and Punishment*, the relief of being found out made the strained tenseness drop away, and I was my old self again. I came around to the other side of that desk, behind which for a month I had been hiding, inadequately fortified by an outline I did not understand, and sat on the front bench.

"It was pretty bad, wasn't it?" I asked the little girls who had been so sweet and helpful during those frantic fifteen minutes when the combination of "I told you butter wouldn't suit the works" and "'Twas brillig and the slithy toves," which seemed to be dropping from my lips, made me a candidate for the honorable society of mad hatters.

"Don't worry about it," comfortingly said Philomena, who had known me in those far-off halcyon Midsummer-Night's-Dream days, "Miss — knows you're not a history teacher. She'll understand."

Fortunately, Philomena was right; because of that understanding, I could go back to the forest of Arden, pick up the tools for which my hands were fitted, and begin all over again.

With examples of guide sheets and a specimen of her results, a teacher in the South Philadelphia High School for Girls presents her own experience in the difficult art of teaching.

History as such I had loved, but my approach was an emotional one, an unintellectual approach, if you will, but peculiarly fitted to the children I was teaching. They were the group we called the 10A Slows, girls with an IQ of considerably less than a hundred who can handle with some difficulty a sixth-grade textbook, but to such adolescent girls of fifteen or sixteen the material in such a textbook is definitely uninteresting. I thought that, given the subject material suitable to their ages, in language they could understand, they would be able to assimilate the background and experience necessary for potential voters. Aren't these the people who by the rule of thumb learn to operate a furnace successfully, and aren't they also the backbone of the mobs who support Mussolini and Hitler?

I decided to try to make the appeal an emotional one with an attempt to develop some discrimination and reasoning power, the latter to be brought about by the empirical method. It seemed to me, as I thought it through, that, if by a series of vicarious experiences, they could be taught to recognize a certain group of happenings as inevitably producing the same result—poverty and misery for the masses—a valuable attitude for democracy might be developed.

I knew, of course, that, academically, these girls were limited, and I would have to be very selective in the choice of material, avoiding all information that would not contribute to the goal and was not vitally interesting and exciting to the girls, so that it would make a vivid enough impression on their presumably slow minds. In general, at

the outset, it seemed that the piling up of facts should be of secondary importance in a course of this type. Rather I should strive for attitudes of mind, habits of responses to certain stimuli, some skills in organizing and the weighing of evidence, and finally a knowledge of a few essential facts that I hoped they would feel as part of themselves rather than something for the history class.

LAST TERM

OUR first week we just bicycled through France and managed to get pretty well acquainted, but the second week, when we wrote a scenario entitled "Jeanne d'Arc Breathes a Soul into France," my nostalgia for English vanished in the old magic and wonder of shining-eyed, excited children. The material got a bit out of hand, and the casting took much too much time, but the dialogue was amusing and lively. The passage from Conan Doyle's *White Company* in which French and English nobles unite to fight French peasants on French soil evoked discussion which belied those IQs, and those members of "The Sixty Families" who make their money in this country and then renounce their citizenship came in for acrimonious criticism. When Burgundy began to talk, he sounded ominously like a child's version of DuPont, Krupp, Inc., though I shall confess, I did some propagandizing here myself and framed rather leading questions. In general, however, I thought the girls were seeing themselves as the peasants of France, worried and impoverished by wars from which they derived no benefit, and they were excited and angry about the whole matter.

OUR next topic was A Meeting of the Estates-General. In a play written by the girls in class they seemed to lose themselves in the spirit of the hungry mob. I suppose that should not be difficult, if your father is a striking stevedore, and the grocer "hollers" every time you come into the store that this is the last time he'll give you anything on the book until your Mother's bill

is paid. I learned a good deal about the home conditions of the girls this week.

One day we were just scattering possible remarks of the peasants at the meeting as I wrote them on the board in play form, and the girls jotted them down in their notebooks. The crowd had just shouted, "The Gabelle, down with the Gabelle!" Quiet little Angelina raised her hand, an almost unheard of formality since we had become French peasants. There was something about Angelina I had been wanting to find out. "The tax on salt," she said, passionately, "I had five bags of salt in my house, which the government made me buy, but I had no food to put the salt on, and my little Joan died of starvation."

It doesn't seem much in print, but there was a tragic poem in those few words. I know more about Angelina now, and I tremble to think of what the Hitlers will do with these underprivileged people, if democracy does not take care of them.

AT the close of the unit of work on the French Revolution the class wrote the following playlet of A Meeting of the Estates-General or National Assembly. The girls did not learn the lines but just kept a copy of the script, which they had jointly composed and written in their notebooks, in front of them. The writing of it took one forty-five minute period.

CROWD (as they are seated). Liberty! Equality! Fraternity! We want bread, bread, bread!

CROWD (at right). Down with Louis XVI! Down with Marie Antoinette!

FIRST CITIZEN (at left). Quiet! Quiet! The King and Queen are all right! Didn't they come to Paris?

SECOND CITIZEN. And he wears a red, white, and blue cockade!

CROWD (at left). Long live Louis XVI! He wears the colors of our national flag.

THIRD CITIZEN. Don't be sure of Louis XVI. He's afraid of us now, and if he gets the kings of other countries to send soldiers here he'll turn them on the citizens of France.

FOURTH CITIZEN. Didn't he turn his soldiers on us at the first meeting of the Estates-General in the palace because we said we wouldn't give him any money unless he corrected some of the abuses? No people should be taxed without the consent of its representatives.

FIFTH CITIZEN. But Louis XVI didn't understand then. He's trying to help us now.

CROWD. Here comes Mirabeau! Quiet! Quiet!
(*Mirabeau enters.*)

MIRABEAU. Citizens of France, greeting!

CROWD. Citizen Mirabeau, Citizen Mirabeau, the friend of the people!

MIRABEAU. At the second meeting of the Estates-General—

CROWD (*interrupting*). National Assembly!

MIRABEAU (*smiling, and continuing in his clear, cultivated voice*). National Assembly, we took a solemn oath that we would not separate until we had drawn up a constitution for France.

CROWD (*stretching out hands*). We'll not separate until we have a constitution for France.

SIXTH CITIZEN. A constitution, what's a constitution?

SEVENTH CITIZEN. It's a piece of paper that tells what the King must do for the citizens of France.

SIXTH CITIZEN. But I can't read. How will I know?

CROWD (*derisively*). He can't read! (*pointing to him*). But you know when you have bread.

EIGHTH CITIZEN. What if the King won't do what the constitution says?

CROWD (*forcefully*). The King must do what the citizens of France demand.

(*Rousseau stands.*)

MIRABEAU. Citizens, citizens, Rousseau would speak!

ROUSSEAU (*with quiet firmness, in contrast to the wildness of the mob*). Citizen Jacques said that a constitution stated the duties of the King. That is only half of the story. The citizens have responsibilities, too. I told you in my *Social Contract* that government should depend on the will of the governed, but always remember that the governed must be wise people if there is to be a good government. If you become excited and lose your heads, we shall accomplish nothing.

(*Voltaire stands.*)

MIRABEAU. Citizen Voltaire, what have you to say?

VOLTAIRE (*amusedly*). But Citizen Mirabeau, if we accomplish nothing then we'll all be Nobles, and France will be the aristocrat among nations.

CROWD (*hilariously*). Ha! Ha! Voltaire, he jokes!

LAFAYETTE (*sternly*). This is no time to joke. There is much to be done. We must settle the tax situation. The Nobility and the Clergy must pay taxes too. The gabelle must be abolished.

CROWD. The gabelle! Down with the gabelle!

NINTH CITIZEN. The tax on salt! I had five bags of salt in my house, which the government made me buy, but I had no food to put the salt on, and my little Joan died of starvation.

MIRABEAU. There is much to be done. Citizens, what are your wishes?

TENTH CITIZEN. The serfs must be freed; they must not be tied to the land, sold with it like animals.

ELEVENTH CITIZEN. The feudal privileges must stop. It is not right that we work for the lords without pay.

CROWD. There are no lords. We are all equal. Liberty! Equality! Fraternity!

TWELFTH CITIZEN. We must break up the land of the Nobles and divide it among the peasants. We must own the land on which we work.

THIRTEENTH CITIZEN. We're all born free; we're all born equal!

FOURTEENTH CITIZEN. We're entitled to land of our own.

ROUSSEAU. Citizens, shall this National Assembly draw up a Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen? We know that men are born and remain free and equal in rights.

LAFAYETTE. And these rights of man are liberty, property, security, and resistance to oppression.

FIFTEENTH CITIZEN. Law must be the expression of the general will.

SIXTEENTH CITIZEN. Every citizen has a right through his representative to help make the law.

SEVENTEENTH CITIZEN. And no one should be put in jail without a fair trial.

MIRABEAU. Citizens, your wishes will be carried out, the Declaration of the Rights of Man and of the Citizen will be written up; the constitution will be planned and submitted to you at our next meeting.

ARISTOCRAT. I move we adjourn until tomorrow so the committees can work on these documents.

MIRABEAU. What is your pleasure, citizens?

CROWD. Until tomorrow! Liberty! Equality! Fraternity!

LISTENING to the radio pretty regularly in those days, for I never knew where an idea might be lurking, I was stimulated to suggest as our fourth unit Southern's Town Meeting of the Air. This resulted in a nice little broadcast and made the studying of the rather difficult Napoleonic era more palatable. *Anthony Adverse*, much of which the girls really read, provided material for a little dramatization showing the wiles and methods of dictators. The dictator's carefully staged riot in the novel, in which poor Ouvard has to be the scapegoat to show the people Napoleon was unaware of the bread shortage, proved a pointed and obvious lesson.

ON the original itinerary England was to be our second stop, but Ruth Bryan Owen stepped in and sold us a trip to Denmark, an expensive one in time and energy, for I knew next to nothing about Denmark when I heard her lecture a week before we needed the guide sheet. Yet it was well worth it. We loved every minute of the time spent there and managed to work in a little experiment in reading on the side. For, except for a good general picture of Scandinavia in our textbook, *The Story of Nations*, there was nothing specifically relating to Denmark. Even the map was much too small. This meant that the guide sheets had to be the textbook and made it possible for me to write the material in the form I thought the girls would understand and like, making it very personal and direct. Fascinating material to shorten and simplify, a grand map

to trace on our stencil, and beautiful pictures to copy, I found in Agnes Rothery's *Denmark, the Kingdom of Reason*, and Ruth Bryan Owen's *Denmark by Caravan*. These and sundry magazine articles provided me with some background for the writing of our unit of work "A Trip through Hans Christian Andersen Land."

The stories of Andersen were the open sesame for this. Unbelievable as it may seem to those of us whose childhood was peopled with "porcelain shepherdesses eloping with porcelain chimney-sweeps and mermaids rescuing princes," these little girls had missed that wonderful Never Never land, and you can imagine the utter delight of being the first one to take them there. For one period we were very sentimental. You know what can be done with "The Little Match Girl." I felt as if I had been let loose among the Christmas trains with no one around to cast aspersions on my mental age, except of course the maps, which have been looking at me with distinct disdain ever since, a compliment I've been returning these past ten days, since they no longer tell the truth. We borrowed or bought copies of the fairy tales to read at home, wrote little plays on them, and one of the girls, inspired by the pastry shop windows of Copenhagen, baked a fairy tale cooky apiece for us—cookies of unquestioned literary integrity. I ate the emperor and there was no doubt about it that he was tough and needed the song of the nightingale!

Green and gold Copenhagen we found much more than quaint and charming, combining as it does fantasy and practicality, those two Danish qualities which make Denmark a fairy tale country in the best sense of the words. Interesting discussion on modern trade treaties as a means of peace came up as we stood in the free port of Copenhagen. At Deer Park we learned about managed forestry, comparing and contrasting American methods, as illustrated by *Come and Get It* and the present efforts of our own government in the CCC camps where many of the girls' brothers had been. This term "The

River" will appear at this point in the guide sheets. And everywhere, in city, town, or co-operative farm, we found the same reasonable, orderly living which makes Denmark a Kingdom of Reason.

FORTUNATELY, Christmas week gave me an opportunity to read half a dozen books on cooperatives and to visit a co-operative apartment house and store before I wrote the next guide sheet, which again held all the material the girls needed in language they could understand. I think we had the most fun these three weeks. First of all we began the period each day with eating, always the ideal way to let down the bars and produce that lively, chatty atmosphere so essential for a successful party or lesson. We ran a real candy cooperative in each class, keeping a very careful account of expenditures, sales, and profits. Most of the girls were taking bookkeeping, which made it possible to have the accounts kept in the approved manner as well as to work in an excellent lesson in subject correlation. Between bites we discussed the three phases of Danish democracy: the folk high school, the cooperative, and social legislation. The study of idealistic Grundtvig and his folk high schools was as alive as material acquired through reading alone can be, but I think that this term I ought to be able to bring the work closer to the girls because of a very recent contact I have had with one of the two real folk high schools in America, the American People's School in New York City.

With the cooperative naturally we lived the work. The Rochdale Pioneers in the hungry forties seemed to call for Edna St Vincent Millay's "Harp-Weaver"—recall those lines . . .

Men say the winter
Was bad that year;
Fuel was scarce
And food was dear.

In the period we spent on the poetess I could not resist telling the girls about how Maxwell Anderson, whose "Winterset" most of them had seen, and Edna St Vincent Millay had worked together on the Sacco-

Vanzetti case. In the light of their subsequent remarks, when we considered social legislation and the concomitant crime prevention in Denmark, this was not a wasted period.

The three phases of Denmark's social legislation, the old age pensions, the invalidity pension, and unemployment insurance, tied up nicely with the attempts our own government has been making, and I was surprised to see how much more exciting to them was the Danish road to democracy through peace and cooperation than even the always thrilling story of France had been, perhaps because the former was so very close to them.

THIS TERM

BECAUSE Denmark seems to be tops, democratically speaking, we are placing it last in the study this term, putting England, for which we did not have time last term, since we started late, after France. Most of the guide sheets are ready, and I shall be disappointed if they don't go over. They have been such fun to make, for coming back to England was like coming home. My big literary map, like the Tyrol, stands comforting and reassuring during these turbulent days. Snarling dictators from Metternich to Hitler may change political lines, but the permanent values remain, and, whatever Neville Chamberlain does, we shall still hear the song of Robin Hood in Sherwood Forest. I hope that first week when Pegasus takes us for a literary tour of England I can make the girls see the dreams in the blue eyes of that British Pegasus. Somehow right now it seems as if dreams and poetry are so much more real and sane in a world gone mad.

Yet since our British Pegasus has a bill of rights beneath his left wing, in our unit of work on England, entitled "The Talking Pictures," we shall try to understand the march of democracy in England from Henry II to the Revolution of 1688, and we shall select from the voices of the air, as we examine the pictures artists have made of

these dramatic moments, the ones best telling the story of English freedom.

OUR unit of work on "The Case of the Commonwealth versus the Robots" will, I hope, result in a trial of modern machines with the girls in the roles of judge, jury, defendants, etc. By means of Karol Kapek's *R.U.R.*, Mary Shelley's *Frankenstein*, and Eddie Bergen's Charlie McCarthy—or is it Charlie McCarthy's Eddie Bergen—that remains for the trial to disclose—I have set the stage for the industrial revolution and its significance. Incidentally I also have it to explain why the British Pegasus carries a bank book beneath his right wing.

WITH "Imperialism in England," I am still struggling. When I typed the title of the guide sheet, "Democracy Made in England—for the English," I thought her treatment of India would clinch that nicely, but the very persuasive Philip Guedalla in his lecture at the Academy recently upset the apple cart, and I have to scrap most of what I have written, which is disconcerting, but to be expected when one teaches a subject as changeable as Proteus. It is rather like shooting the chutes, exciting but wearing on the nerves.

RESULTS

ICAN not be sure about results for the pupils. I know the girls had a happy time and enjoyed the work. They have been back to see me frequently this term to tell me how much fun they had. For myself the experiment has been invaluable. No longer will I use literature as an Ivory Tower of retreat, when world tragedies are too much with me. As compensation for that refuge, however, I can see now Thomas Mann's hope for mankind, the timelessness of democracy tied up with literature and life, a steady, ever-widening stream of permanent values and aesthetic truths which, if we keep the faith, will flow serenely on in its Socratic

course, even though little Canutes, be they German or Italian, seem temporarily to change its course.

READERS of the above will be interested in the following examples of the guide sheets provided in the course. Ed.)

REQUIRED WORK FOR SECTION ONE OF YOUR NOTEBOOK INTRODUCTION: First of all fill in your outline and place it in the first section of your notebook. Be sure to know the meaning of all the words. Look in the dictionary for the words you do not understand and jot down the meanings. Many of these facts will be discussed when the Estates-General, of which you will be a part, meets.

A. Explain the motto, "Liberty, Equality, Fraternity." What countries, today, have this as their goal?

B. You are Marie Antoinette. What can you say in your own defense?

C. Decide which of the three classes of society you wish to represent and write exactly what you are going to say at the meeting.

D. Tell what Rousseau meant by the Social Contract.

E. Were the French ready to rule? Why did the Reign of Terror result? Can you think of any countries of today in which many similar conditions exist?

OPTIONAL WORK FOR SECTION THREE OF YOUR NOTEBOOK.

A. Read *The Peasant and the Prince* by Martineau and prepare to tell the class about it. You'll like the story since it's about young people and the struggles they endured during this period.

B. *A Tale of Two Cities* by Charles Dickens might interest some of you. The story of Dr Manette's condition after he was released from the Bastille will show you the necessity for a change in government; the tale of Charles Darnay's capture by the French will give you an idea of how unfair and cruel the Revolutionists became.

C. Imagine that you are in Paris during the

Revolution. Describe the sights in a letter to your friends at home. You might pretend you are the poet, William Wordsworth, who was in France at the dawn of the Revolution and thrilled with the hope it brought to mankind.

D. *Great Moments in History*, which is on the desk, has some interesting pictures and facts about the Revolution, pages 95, 96, and 97. Look at them and write down any additional facts you find worth while.

UNIT III. A MEETING OF THE ESTATES-GENERAL

Bliss was it in that dawn to be alive,
But to be young was very heaven!
Wordsworth

—*The Prelude*—Book XI

Along the Paris streets, the death-carts rumble, hollow and harsh. Six wagonloads carry the day's slaughter to La Guillotine. Beautiful Paris has become a huge monster devouring her people. And yet there is not in France a root, a sprig, a pepper-corn, which will grow to maturity, under conditions more certain than those that have produced this horror. Sow the same seed of license, murder, and oppression over again and it will surely yield the same fruit according to its kind.

Dickens—*A Tale of Two Cities*

Introduction: You know what the 10A Cabinet Meetings are, don't you? The representatives you have chosen meet to discuss questions pertaining to the government of your class, and thus your wishes, which you can convey to the cabinet members, can be carried out. On large scale, the Student Government Association of our school forms our central government. This is a democratic government, that is, a government by the people. The United States is governed somewhat the same way, as you know. You recall how your parents went to vote recently; they were choosing laws and representatives. This week we are going to study about the French people and how they fought to achieve just such a democratic government.

In the two hundred years following the crowning of the Dauphin at Rheims, about which you studied last week, the kings of France became more and more powerful until the people had practically no share in the government. How they forced the kings to allow them to have regular meetings (they called their governing body the Estates-General) we shall learn this week. Let's have that first meeting of the Estates-General right here in class and you be the members. You'll have to know the French problems so that you can discuss them as a Frenchman of 1789. It was all most exciting, and, if we gather our facts carefully, we should have an interesting meeting. Make a very careful outline of what you wish to say following the plan below:

Outline of Important Events in the Struggle for Democracy

A. France an Autocracy—pp. 386-89

1. Theory of Government of Louis XIV
2. Life at Versailles
 - a. Grandeur
 - b. Expenses
 - c. The people who paid the bills

B. The French Revolution—pp. 393-96

1. Classes of society in France—tell position and function of each

- a. Nobles
- b. Clergy
- c. Third Estate

2. Causes of the French Revolution—pp. 389-93

- a. Corruption and extravagance of Nobles and Kings
- b. Treatment of the lower classes (Did you see the movie, "A Tale of Two Cities"?)
- c. System of taxation
- d. French writers who pointed out the need for reform—list and tell work of each

3. Chief events of the French Revolution

- a.
- b.
- c.
- d.

4. Reign of Terror

- a. Causes
- b. Leaders
- c. Results
- d. Democracy becomes autocracy

Educational Aspects of the NYA

WILLIAM H. MORRIS

MANY persons were alarmed a few years ago, when it became known that a large number of young transients, estimated as between two and three hundred thousand, were roaming the country. The fact struck home that the depression affected the youths of the nation quite as tragically as any other group. Many young persons were being forced to drop out of school, and college was out of the question for large numbers. Work was difficult to find. The slang expression of the times was "So what?" And it often was spoken with a vicious inflection. People asked what could be done. "Well—we can try to keep them in school. We can make college possible for some others. We can give them jobs doing work beneficial to the public."

Details for accomplishing this task were gradually worked out after the National Youth Administration was established by executive order in June, 1935. In addition to aid for students and for unemployed, out-of-school youth, the NYA took on the functions of sponsoring constructive recreational activities and of providing vocational guidance. Inherent was the idea that students should work for whatever financial assist-

ance they received—that employment opportunities, not income, should be offered. It was felt that training should be a part of the program. In the past three years this feature has been emphasized increasingly and has been expanded. This article may serve, therefore, to explain and to assess the educational aspects and implications of the NYA in the state of Delaware.

In Georgetown last year a small number of students on the NYA school aid program made an annotated bibliography of the books in the school library. At the Claymont High School some NYA students supervised the play of small children over the noon hour. At the William Penn High School in New Castle, as well as at other schools in the state, NYA students served as office assistants. Work in the libraries, cafeterias, and offices was common throughout the state for students on the NYA. This is learning by doing. It means that the curriculum for the students and schools participating is thereby vitalized.

MOREOVER much more is possible. It is possible for students on the NYA to work in the community itself, in museums, prisons, hospitals, and other public agencies, as some of the students at the Delaware colleges are in fact doing. Towns in Delaware may get their tennis courts. Many services not previously carried on in the schools can now be provided. Most important of all, perhaps the example of what NYA students have done and can do will make the communities the textbooks of our schools. Can whole schools learn by doing

Out of his experience with the National Youth Administration in Delaware the author presents some of the educational aspects of that federal undertaking to protect young people from the worst effects of a depression.

instead of merely a few students in some schools, where the NYA program is operative? This is not to say that some schools are not following, at least to a degree, this conception of education in Delaware today. Nor is it to be understood that this writer thinks that a satisfactory education can be given by means of activity alone, without books. Certainly, however, there is a rightful place for planned activity. Citizenship is developed not by reading about it but by being good citizens. How can this be better developed than under the guidance of the school? NYA may serve as a stimulus—provided of course that the premise is valid that such an educational experience is desirable.

IN addition to this vitalizing influence, the NYA may be credited with fostering vocational education and vocational guidance in connection with the school aid program. In the first place the effort is made to center work about interests and aptitudes. On the whole, opinion among school superintendents has tended to hold that, although students should be removed from the NYA if they refuse to do any sort of work, this should not be done until every attempt had been made to discover what they are fitted to do and to find some opportunities to fit them into the right niche, and that the aims of vocational training should be kept constantly in mind. Neither vitalization nor vocational training will result, however, without efforts or without difficulties, without time and patience.

ANOTHER phase of the NYA organization—the works program—which was devised for unemployed and out-of-school youth between eighteen and twenty-five years of age has some educational implications worth consideration. This is even more directly vocational training, for the workers are placed with regard to the training that is possible. Boys and girls who have done their school work in the commercial course are placed as clerks or stenographers in public agencies or organizations to serve the

public. This first hand office experience has produced quite gratifying results in terms of improved skills and placements in private industry. A system similar to this is followed under the cooperative plan of the Wilmington schools. Then there are workers in nursery schools, public libraries, hospitals, recreation and community centers.

It is true that some of these projects have little vocational value. The chances are slim that a job will result. However, the knowledge gained, let us say in a nursery school or in the kitchen of a hospital, ought to be valuable to any girl. There are girls on a sewing unit who were not able to sew before and who now can sew with a good deal of skill. It must be remembered that many of the boys and girls on the works program did not even reach the high school and consequently missed home economics and other kindred subjects. Furthermore, if the vocational or personal values are negligible, as occasionally happens, the effort is made to develop sound work habits. In fact, this should happen in all cases. In short and in conclusion, the NYA works program is an educational device in three ways, with vocational, personal, and habit-forming values.

THE NYA has been instrumental through its guidance activities in making it possible for some prospective college students to matriculate, and it has arranged for a number of students to get additional training in postgraduate courses, in trade school, or in other classes. Further, it has collected and is making available a good deal of information of a vocational training nature. It has tried to face the fact squarely that its offer of financial help is coupled with the temptation for young persons to get something for nothing, to accept pay for doing things that in normal times would seem to them as coveted privileges of community service. The NYA has tried to realize that without very wise guidance this may in the end be destructive to character rather than assistance to the student, and miseducation as well as education.

Have You Read?

KATHARINE ELIZABETH CRANE

WHAT next? The answers to that question are as varied as human nature and human experience. R. C. K. Ensor in the October 14 issue of the English *Spectator* outlines two possible main directions of the development of Hitler's activity. "He will stick to his *Mein Kampf* programme: cajole Great Britain; consolidate Central Europe into a feudatory empire comprising (with Germany herself) a population equal to the U.S.S.R.'s; and proceed (possibly, even probably, without war) to acquire the Ukraine for German colonisation (a feature second to none in the programme as he himself sees it). All things then would be added unto him. France, demoralised as she is both politically and industrially, could without war be Fascisized into his orbit. Great Britain herself could hardly last a decade. For now that she has delivered over Central Europe to Germany, she can do nothing to prevent the vast resultant combination from building her fleet out of the water, with resources immensely exceeding her own."

On the other hand he thinks that Hitler's immense success, which, "has outrun his hopes" may "go to his head." In that case, "he might prefer to dispose of France earlier, and by war. Having forfeited her Russian, Czech, and Polish alliances, she is temptingly weak. Germany and Italy, alone, can confront her with a man-power of three to one; and Great Britain, her only associate, could not now help her on that side."

Another English periodical, the *New Statesman and Nation* of October 15, is equally gloomy about the future. "Czecho-

slovakia no longer exists as an independent State. That is the brute fact which the British nation must grasp before it encourages the Prime Minister to advance money to a Government which is little more than a vassal of Hitler. . . . Clearly there is a well-laid plan to make the frontiers of the new Czech State so fantastic that the Czechs themselves will prefer to enter the Third Reich."

In the same magazine "Stock-Taking" by Kingsley Martin points out that "if Hitler grants us a short breathing space we shall waste it if our only notion of security is to redouble our air force." His own idea of security is to reorganize national and international life in the "hope of reviving a Britain not so much as a Great Power, but rather as a bastion of liberty in Western Europe."

He thinks that "whether Hitler will come to an economic conference or not, we should at once enter into the closest economic relations possible with America, the Scandinavian countries, France, Russia and such other countries as care to come into an economic union." He also quotes with approval "some wise remarks in the House of Commons made by Mr Amery that we 'may have to recast much of our economic system so as to afford better opportunities, better security, more social justice for all.' "

HIS analysis of the reasons for Britain's present situation are not without application to the United States. "Long confident in our natural frontier, our wealth, our homogeneous population, and our naval

strength, we have learned to think of ourselves as providentially a free nation, sufficient guardians of our own Empire and decisive allies whenever idealism coupled with self-interest caused us to take a part in Continental affairs. When Hitler complained that we still talked like the governers of Europe his gibe had more point than we care to admit." The whole present situation has come about "partly because we failed to do justice to democratic Germany when we had the chance of doing it voluntarily, and partly because the Governments of Britain and France have destroyed the League [recasting of exact wording necessary for application to the United States] which was the only instrument which could have prevented the naked rule of force in Europe, and also their only means of national security."

ONE aspect of the British government's decision in the crisis may possibly be indicated by Vera Brittain's discussion of "Will Young England Fight?" in the November *Atlantic*. She does not offer a clear cut answer to her own question. Instead she analyzes various alignments of political and philosophical interest and compares them in order to give her reader some basis for his own opinion of what are the probabilities in case of future war. "Nevertheless the number who will refuse to fight is likely to be greater than in 1914. At the moment it is sufficient to overtax the resources of existing British prisons, and the twenty years' background of deplorable error out of which the present catastrophe has arisen is unlikely to convert any serious pacifist to patriotic enthusiasm for a new attempt to save democracy at world cost."

SHADOW over Europe by Shepard Stone, one of the Headline Books of the Foreign Policy Association (New York, 25c) appeared the other day. Already taking into account the recent crisis and cessions of territory, its main emphasis is, nevertheless, on the whole picture of Germany's develop-

ment historically from the middle ages, economically, and spiritually. It is a very clear account in the small space of ninety-two pages and as nearly uncontroversial as would be humanly possible.

BRITISH APPROBATION

THE extreme of enthusiastic British support of Chamberlain and all his works is to be found in such an imperialistic periodical as *Great Britain and the East* for October 13. "By the action of Great Britain and France and the timely intervention of Signor Mussolini, Czechoslovakia is to be an independent State freed from the distractions of a discontented minority." Oddly enough, though, it seems a little mixed in its own mind about the past history of the Sudeten Germans and seems to forget that before the World War they were part of Austria-Hungary and not Germany.

For the future? "Already there are those who say that to allow Germany a free hand in Central and Eastern and South-Eastern Europe is the wisest policy, if only because there are few obvious means of stopping her." As regards colonies "it has been admitted that many shrewd observers of German foreign policy, including some Germans themselves, believe that Germany would, if freely allowed to expand 'naturally' in Europe; be content with 'token' possessions abroad."

ONE of the things that magazine seems to consider important will amuse Americans a good deal, if it does not horrify them to observe the vast chasm that yawns between our own view of what is important and what seems to be the view of some of our English cousins! "'Now your King and Queen will be able to come to Germany to visit their Royal cousins,' the writer was told by a prominent German official not long after the Agreement was signed. The interest of Germans in the British Royal House has been enhanced by the disappearance of their own dynasties. On many sides the writer has heard the wish expressed that

King George and Queen Elizabeth should visit Germany. If they should decide to do so, there is no doubt whatever that their welcome would far surpass in warmth and spontaneity that accorded to any previous visitor to Nazi Germany."

PICTURES AND FACTS

PICTORIAL magazines are full of all kinds of pictures. *L'Illustration* of October 8 has many pages of sketches and photographs of men and events. The issue for October 8 of the *Illustrated London News* is "A Record Number. The Crisis and the Agreement," and it contains an even more generous assortment. In a two-page spread there is a remarkable relief map of "old" Czechoslovakia and the surrounding regions to show "how the Munich agreement is being fulfilled," and there are three small outline maps of the Anglo-French plan for cession, Germany's demands in the Godesberg Memorandum, and the "zones of occupation as finally agreed upon."

Also there is a great four-page spread of the sixth of the series "Fighting Ships of the Great Powers." Devoted to the British navy, it takes four pages to do what two pages served to do for such navies as the French, Italian, and German. It is a brave show—which may give some aid and comfort to British feelings in this hour.

ONE fact did appear in these pictures which has been overlooked over and over again by most commentators, although it was distinctly indicated in all the pertinent press dispatches and distinctly said by Mr Chamberlain in his speech to Parliament. That it actually happened is beyond belief. On the other hand that it actually happened can not be doubted. The fact appears only casually in these pictures, and they would in themselves in no way constitute a proof, but they make it vivid. The fact is that in the transactions at Berchtesgaden the British Prime Minister, who is not at all competent to know what is going on in the German language and does not claim to

be competent, depended on a German attached to the German foreign office as interpreter, and had no interpreter of his own at all. Think it over and consider the balance of advantage from the point of view of a poker game!

A CYNICAL VIEW

OF course this is of no importance if we are to accept the view of Frederick L. Schuman in "The Crisis: an Interpretation" in the November issue of *Events*. *Events* devotes a good deal of this issue to the "Crisis" with treatments of various aspects from various points of view by such observers as Sidney B. Fay, "Hitler's Successful Bluff," Herbert Heaton, "Britain's Peace at Any Price," Leo Gershoy, "Exit France's Popular Front," and J. Fred Rippy, "America and Europe's Strife."

Among these, Frederick L. Schuman's article holds that most of what appeared on the surface of the "Crisis" was all window dressing, that the British government started out to do what it did for its own reasons. He believes the men in the British government "are thinking not in terms of months or years but of decades and that they envisage the Soviet Union as a far more dangerous threat to their empire and social system than the Italy of Mussolini or the Germany of Hitler or the Japan of Hirohito. . . . Hitler is the most potent of the Caesars, and he is sworn to peace with Britain and war with Russia. Rome and Tokyo, and even Berlin, if necessary, can be appeased when the time for further 'appeasement' arrives with French or Dutch or Portuguese colonies." By permitting Germany to expand eastward Britain insures her ultimate conflict with Russia and insures for her strength great enough to make her a fit antagonist even for rapidly progressing Russia, and, although such a course is entirely against French ideas, Britain accomplished what France "had neither the wit nor the will to ward off."

Had other statesmen been at the head of the French government they "would have

perceived at once that Paris held all the aces and was for the first time (and the last) in a position to beat the Tory game and inflict upon the Reich a crushing diplomatic (and if necessary military) defeat."

There was a good deal of danger that it all would not come out as the Tories had planned—and there is still danger that Germany will turn first against France and Britain instead of absorbing herself in affairs to the eastward. "The slightest hint of French loyalty to the Czech alliance would have caused Prague to say 'No!' Moscow was ready to fight. If France fought, Britain would be forced to fight, for it was precisely the weakness of Chamberlain's position as regards Hitler and his own people that he could not yet commit his country to neutrality if France were involved in war. The false suggestions in Paris after the event that France would have stood alone were but the most pitiable rationalizations of defeatism. In fear of the Red Army, Poland was ready to join the French coalition. Rumania and Yugoslavia unquestionably would have joined. Despite his bombast, Mussolini would in all likelihood have deserted Berlin. In the face of such a coalition, Hitler would either have yielded or would have been utterly crushed by a world of foes against him."

For the moment at least it did turn out as Frederick L. Schuman thinks was planned. "In a few superb strokes, Chamberlain achieved all his objectives. Czechoslovakia was liquidated. The Reich was master of *Mittel Europa*. Moscow was sundered from the West. The French alliance system was a memory. The People's Front was a complete wreck. An Anglo-Power Pact was a reality and France became a neutralized British protectorate. In this wise Chamberlain achieved the greatest triumph of an otherwise dull career."

WHATEVER one thinks of so extreme a view as this, it certainly seems, from the point of view of a democratic state, that Britain took the wrong turning sometime

back, probably at the point where she decided not to join the United States in an effort to help China against Japan. Having taken the wrong road then or later, it is quite possible that there really was no passable crossroad back to the proper highway at just that point. It may be true that Democracy would have run into a marsh of wars and stayed for many generations bogged down there. It may also be true that Mr Chamberlain, being only sixty-nine, although he speaks of himself as old, will live long enough to see unexpected things happen and to go to his grave unwept and unsung.

OURSELVES

AT least there is a semblance of peace, another breathing space," writes John Palmer Gavit in "Victory—by Whom and for What?" in the November *Survey Graphic*. He also remarks sadly that "the one thing registered beyond doubt by the procedures of late has been that pacts and promises are worthless; that for the time being we are back in the era of force; as Wordsworth put it at Rob Roy's grave

The good old rule

That they should take who have the power,
And they should keep who can."

He points out that the League of Nations might have saved it all, but the League was destroyed. "The United States, in whose heart the League was conceived, with no excuse at all save those of politics, Wilson-hating and refusal to stand its share of sacrifice in the international task, ducked all responsibility and has stood aloof, sneering and sabotaging all through those first years of struggle to establish world peace upon a footing of world cooperation. We are greatly responsible for the state of the world today."

AS to the possibilities of future war involving ourselves Norman Thomas is very clear in the November *Harpers*. He is very sure that "We Needn't Go to War," but "we are all too likely" to fight in the next war "unless we begin now to wage peace."

Setting aside—as is reasonable—actual invasion as a cause for our going to war, he believes that American participation in any war is not necessary for the maintenance of the non-fascist European countries and that it would not crush the fascist ones. On the other hand just as soon as we are at war American democracy must give way before a totalitarian state which is absolutely necessary for the prosecution of a totalitarian war. Whatever particular form it will take, it will nevertheless be a totalitarian state.

The memory of the last war's results ought to be green enough still to deter us from entering it in the name of democracy at least. "The last war almost cost America what liberty she had. Truth and freedom, men sadly observed, were the first casualties of war. The espionage law was the engine of grotesque oppression. The Postmaster General, an economic illiterate, became thought controller, with the result that all leftist papers were crippled or suppressed. The mob did what the police and courts did not. Frank Little was lynched; the striking miners of Arizona were driven out into the desert. America accepted docilely universal conscription for war. And when peace came the war hysteria continued. Mitchell Palmer's anti-red raids wrote some of the ugliest pages of our history."

As for a sound program of opposition to war? It "will insist on clear-cut opposition to all imperialism and to the militarism of the big navy and mobilization bills. It will demand the recall of troops and ships from belligerent zones where no good that they can do is worth the risk they run. It will consent to no alliances, tacit or open, for war in the name of collective security. It will uphold the general policy of emphasis on peace trade, not war trade. . . . It will favor a popular referendum on the declaration of war."

OUR own selves and our own opinions are the only one we can really hope to work on with much success. Therefore it seems reasonable to put into this section the

"author's note" at the end of an article "Forth—to War?" in the Autumn *American Scholar*. As the article was going to press, after the Czechoslovakian crisis had pointed up all he had to say, A. J. Muste added this note "Those people are probably right who think the four-power deal at the expense of Czechoslovakia and other lands is unlikely to accomplish any good. They lapse into sentimentalism, however, if they think war would accomplish more. There is only one course that will not lead to practically certain disaster; it is a renunciation of the game of power politics and the creation of a new peace settlement (before war since no chance for a decent peace is likely to come after it) to include all nations and to deal with the vexed economic issues of raw materials, colonies, markets, tariffs and currencies in a comprehensive and intelligent fashion."

ASSUMPTIONS of Democracy" are examined in the September issue of the *Political Science Quarterly* by Charles E. Merriam. He considers five basic assumptions, which serve as standards to evaluate proposed policies and measures. "These assumptions taken together make up the working philosophy of democracy, as it is evolving historically. He admits that other forms of government may, with a show of validity, claim to share some of the assumptions, but he thinks that "there is no guarantee that these concessions will be made even in theory, or that more than theoretical lip service will be paid to them. The promise of their fulfilment without the determination of public policy by the community and without the consent of the governed is a fading hope."

His analysis and discussion is interesting and important to a complete understanding of this line of thought. I can, however, here only name the assumptions (1) "of the essential dignity of all men and the importance of protecting and cultivating personality primarily as a fraternal rather than on a differential basis"; (2) "that there is a con-

stant trend in human affairs toward the perfectibility of mankind"; (3) "that the gains of commonwealths are essentially mass gains and should be diffused through the mass by whom they were created as rapidly and as fairly as possible"; (4) of "the desirability of popular control in the last analysis over basic questions of policy and direction, with recognized procedures for the formulation of such policies and their execution"; (5) "of confidence in the possibility of conscious social change, accomplished by consent rather than violence."

POLITICS

WITH one national election just behind us, another, and a more important, looms just ahead. The question of a possible third term for President Roosevelt continues to agitate men's minds, pro and con. The Gallup survey in the Autumn issue of the *Public Opinion Quarterly* reports that the majority of the country's votes are against it at this time, but there are several other aspects to be taken into consideration.

Fortune for October publishes the results of "The Fortune Survey: XV," which, among other things, indicates that "Mr Roosevelt and the New Deal are by no means inseparable; that Mr Roosevelt is more popular than his candidates or his ideas or his advisers. Thus, although Mr Roosevelt will have a less pliant Congress on his hands in the future and although the Republicans can be expected to make gains this fall, Mr Roosevelt's personal hold upon the nation is unimpaired."

Two other articles in the same number of *Fortune* probably have even more bearing than present opinion on the ultimate public opinion that will decide future elections, "What Is a Steel Price?" and "Forecasting Business." The article on steel undertakes to define steel price "in terms of a specific operation—Inland Steel Company of Indiana Harbor, Indiana." The other considers the forecasting methods based on various kinds of data, more or less economic, from

the rise and fall of the stock market to that of the general emotional reactions of various kinds of business men.

A WITTY and double-edged article by Ted Patrick, on "Electing a Republican President," is printed in the November *Scribner's*, dressed up as a report by the "John H. Doe Advertising Agency" on a "Basic Plan for the 1940 campaign . . . prepared with sample advertisements and posters for the Republican National Committee." It is based on the general proposition "that a sufficient amount of advertising money, in sufficiently skillful advertising hands, could popularize cancer. Undoubtedly, expert advertising could help sell the American public a Republican president. But there is certain groundwork to be done before advertising itself can perform its miracles." The candidate of this article is Tom Dewey, recently defeated for the governorship of New York, with pictures, slogans, and all the paraphernalia of a high-powered report for an advertising campaign to sell toothpaste, soap, electric iceboxes, or what have you.

As for the third-term taboo, this article points out that it "has never been examined very closely by the public." The article is a little mixed about the circumstances in which Washington did retire without a third term, but its basic statement is certainly true that no one knows how strong the actual taboo is. The article's "advice" to the Republican Committee is to discourage those Republicans now working for a Roosevelt third-term movement on the assumption that, owing to the taboo, it would be the easiest competition possible. "We do feel firm in our belief that *any* other competition would be preferable to another meeting with Roosevelt."

RELIEF and the Elections" by Lawrence Sullivan in the November *Atlantic* will do nothing to change your belief as to whether or not the government relief funds are administered for partisan ends, but the

figures of the amounts of money involved warrant your attention. The author sets the figure of two and nine-tenths billions of dollars as the relief expenditure for 1938, exclusive of all farm benefit payments. By way of comparison it may be said that two billions will take care of all expenditures for public schools from elementary through state university and a little more than a billion for national defense.

JAMES WESTFALL THOMPSON

NOT often does any historian, to say nothing of a historian of the distinction of Carl Becker, put into print his opinion of the entire work of any living historian, but in his review of *Medieval and Historiographical Essays in Honor of James Westfall Thompson* in the September issue of the *Journal of Modern History* Carl Becker does just that thing. "Few American historians have published as much, on a wider variety of subjects, or of higher average quality. To an unusual degree his writings combine exact scholarship and wide learning with a lively interest in ideas and the bearing of historical events on human life. Those who think he can write only for the learned and the specialist should read the essays collected under the title *Byways in bookland* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1935). These charming essays reveal not only the breadth of his interest and the wealth of exact and curious lore at his command but also the fine temper and quality of his mind. Why James Westfall Thompson has not yet been honored with the presidency of the American Historical Association is a mystery to me—just one of those things, I dare say."

TIME AND SPACE

TIME and space as geologists count it is very different from a social scientist's count. If you want to do your traveling over a wide range, two articles in the October *Natural History* are devoted to that purpose. With the growing body of knowledge amassed by the geologist and the palaeontol-

ogist it becomes more and more possible to reconstruct the appearance and distribution of land masses and oceans, typical land- and sea-scapes, and even animals as they existed in times so long past that any mention of probable figures staggers the imagination of social scientists, who by stretching themselves can manage to take into some account a time range of ten thousand years perhaps. What then of three or four hundred million years?

Pictures of reconstructions and of actual remains on which reconstruction is based are here produced so as to give a sense of reality which is too often absent from explanations and less luxurious pictures. Maps indicate land and sea masses during other geological eras in what is now the North American continent, and one map reminds us that time is not done with her changes by indicating how the present area of the United States would look if in the course of the next million years or so the land should sink perhaps a hundred fathoms. A hundred fathoms is only six hundred feet, but it is interesting to see what it would do to the landscape, with New York and Chicago at the bottom of the sea and St Louis, Little Rock, and Dallas as prosperous seaports doing a thriving business with the great nearby island whose seaports are Louisville and Birmingham. Or do I betray the incorrigible outlook of a social scientist by persisting in thinking of trade, seaports, and business?

If all this spread of geological time and change has not made you slough off, at least for a moment, your time-bound self, you can turn to Erich M. Schlaikjer's "The Road to Man" in the same magazine, with its sheet of restorations of thirty fossil forms showing stages in man's long climb from existence as the earliest vertebrate which lived in the water. He assigns the probable dates of that early animal as some four hundred and fifty million years ago—when the world itself was already old. "When vertebrates appeared, more than three-fourths of the earth's history had passed."

THE same magazine prints an article by Donald Culross Peattie, "Careers in Nature," which may be useful for teachers interested in vocational guidance, because it gives details of names, possible salaries, "how to begin," and "lifetime employment," concerning public and private employment of various kinds for naturalists and those who practise such related vocations as, for instance, photography.

TEACHING PATRIOTISM

"PATRIOTISM—But How?" by Howard Mumford Jones in the November *Atlantic* examines our national life and thought from another angle. He points out that, whatever else the dictator countries have or haven't done, what they "have succeeded in doing is to make patriotism glamorous." He grants that "the technical name for this sort of trick is propaganda, but it is not ideational propaganda I am talking about. What I refer to is the prompt and efficient creation by the dictators of glamorous mythological images. These images please their downtrodden subjects, make them feel swell, and send them off to the army or a labor camp singing mistaken patriotic songs. . . . The official history is full of heroism, chivalry, romance. . . . The result is that the communist or fascist citizen, at least in his public moments, has an exhilarating sense of living in a vast grand opera."

He says that "we used to have Glamour in this country," but we have lost it, for we have mislaid our mythology. Why? "The answer is in part that we had our own grand opera until, under the combined attacks of 'progressive' educators, the debunking biographer, and social historians, we grew shamefaced about it."

He provides an interesting list of questions to be asked any child in order to prove the child's ignorance of the heroic stories to which he is heir. Try it on yourself. He pays his respects to "World Peaceways, Inc.," and regrets the number of items with a mili-

tary flavor. "I can only say that the heroic moments of history seem to be commonly associated with the danger of death." He quotes defiantly

And how can man die better
Than facing fearful odds
For the ashes of his fathers
And the temples of his gods?

His receipt for change? "What we need is a patriotic renaissance. . . . If we really want to believe that political democracy is worth fighting for, we need to be told over and over again what pain and suffering it has cost."

He does not, however, overlook the dangerous fact that that is just what a number of pressure groups are trying to urge for their own ends. Danger comes from the right and from the left. "Because the dictator countries have cleverly manipulated a patriotic mythology for sinister ends it does not follow, because we are not yet a dictator country, that patriotic mythology cannot be manipulated for sinister ends in the United States." Neither does he want "unhistorical history," and he has no patience with suppression of texts in the interests of "Americanism."

HE does think that "in our enthusiasm for social forces we have omitted most of the thrilling anecdotes. . . . Washington did not cross the Delaware in the fatuous manner of the celebrated painting; nevertheless he crossed it, and it was full of floating ice. I may add that he and his ragged Continentals were likewise extremely uncomfortable at Valley Forge."

He warns, too, against the error of restricting these stories, this possession of the romance of early achievement, too narrowly to any race or religion or group or nationality. "If democracy is to revive its living legend, it cannot confine that legend to the exploits of a favored few."

NOTES AND NEWS

NATIONAL COUNCIL AT CHICAGO

A joint luncheon session of the National Council for the Social Studies and the American Historical Association will be held in the Boulevard Room of the Stevens Hotel, Chicago, on Thursday, December 29, at 12:30. The subject of the discussion which will follow the luncheon is "What Should Be Taught in Junior and Senior High School American History?" Following brief statements by John R. Davey of the University of Chicago High School, Elmer Ellis of the University of Missouri, Edgar B. Wesley of the University of Minnesota, and Fremont P. Wirth of the George Peabody College for Teachers, the question will be opened for general discussion. C. C. Barnes, president of the National Council for the Social Studies, will be chairman.

For reservations address Professor Tracy E. Strevey, Northwestern University, Evanston, Illinois

MIDDLE STATES

The Middle States Association of History and Social Science Teachers held its annual fall meeting in Atlantic City on October 28-29. Friday afternoon Charles R. Hollenbach of the Atlantic City Senior High School presided at a session devoted to classroom problems. William Duncan of the Simon B. Gratz High School, Philadelphia, discussed the "Development of Attitudes Toward Work and Habits of Study in the Classroom"; Clara V. Braymer of the Central High School, Trenton, New Jersey, described effective efforts at "Teaching Low Reading Ability Groups in Social Science"; and Leonard S. Kenworthy of the Friends' Central School, Overbrook, Philadelphia, spoke on "Developing Social Sensitivity."

Amanda Streeper of the William Penn High

School, Philadelphia, president of the Association, presided at the dinner session, at which G. Nye Steiger of Simmons College, Boston, discussed "The Far East and World Security."

Robert I. Adriance of the East Orange, New Jersey, High School, first vice-president, was chairman of the Saturday morning meeting. Albert V. House, Jr. of Wilson Teachers College, Washington, traced the "Origins of the Lincoln Religious Controversy"; John C. Patterson of American University reported "Latin American Opinion of Mexican Expropriation Policies"; and Louis M. Hacker of Columbia University analyzed "The Relation of Government to Agriculture" in the United States during the past quarter century.

The meetings concluded with a luncheon at which Harold F. Wilson of the New Jersey State Teachers College, Glassboro, presided, and Merle E. Curti of Teachers College, Columbia University, spoke on "Wanted: A History of American Patriotism."

The addresses will appear in the thirty-sixth volume of the Proceedings of the Association, which will appear in January. The spring meeting will be held in New York City on Friday and Saturday, April 21-22.

CENTRAL OHIO

The Social Studies Association of Central Ohio sponsored a panel discussion in Columbus, on the topic "Where Do We Go from Here?" The viewpoint of the senior high school was presented by Miss Jane Cowell of Central High School, that of the elementary school by Miss Fred Boge of the Ohio Avenue School, and that of the junior high school by Dr Leland N. Drake, principal of the Mound Junior High School. Dr Arthur Moehlman of the University School, Ohio State University, spoke on trends in social science teaching.

The Association is engaged in an extensive curriculum construction study.

A. W. M.

MIDWEST PENNSYLVANIA

The fall meeting of the Social Studies Council for the Midwest Convention District of the Pennsylvania State Education Association was held at New Castle on October 21. The largest gathering ever to attend a Council meeting greeted Dr Harry Elmer Barnes, who spoke on "The Role of the Social Studies in the Present Social Order." Dr Barnes stressed the fact that we need social inventors who can engineer the closing of the wide gulf between our technological advance and our social lag. He contended that the social studies teachers should shoulder the responsibilities of the social inventors. Social studies teachers are challenged, he said, to be daring enough to face criticism and to aid in preparing a blue-print for a society in which there would be a greater production for use instead of profit and a greater efficiency in the distribution of goods. He felt that a better society should be brought about by the process of evolution and not by revolution, which is the last alternative of a civilized society. Dr Barnes sounded the call for thorough and effective organizations among the social studies teachers.

Dr Ralph W. Cordier, president of the Council, introduced Dr Barnes and presided over the business meeting, at which a new constitution was adopted and officers were elected for next year. The officers for 1938-39 are J. C. Ward, New Castle, president; R. H. Johnson, Thiel College, first vice-president; Ralph W. Cordier, State Teachers College, Clarion, second vice-president; Clifford J. Smith, Aliquippa, secretary-treasurer. The members of the Board of Directors are Eric Garing, Wilda Brubaker, and A. Kannenberg.

C. J. S.

WISCONSIN

The Wisconsin History Teachers section of the Wisconsin Education Association concluded a very successful 1938 program with a luncheon-discussion November 4 on the theme "Propaganda and the School." Over four hundred teachers were present at the meeting, held in connection with the annual state con-

vention in Milwaukee, and more than one hundred others were turned away because of lack of standing room.

Clyde R. Miller of Teachers College, Columbia University, secretary of the Institute for Propaganda Analysis, was the principal speaker, discussing the topic "The Analysis of Propaganda." Others on the program were H. B. McCarty of state radio station WHA, Madison, William W. Biddle of the Milwaukee State Teachers College, and H. H. Clemons, superintendent of schools at Lake Geneva.

Alfred Reschke of North Division High School, Milwaukee, was elected chairman of the section for 1939. Edward H. Evans of the Whitewater State Teachers College faculty, present chairman, was selected as delegate to the Pittsburgh meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies. The secretary-treasurer, B. W. Wells of Madison, was re-elected.

The Wisconsin History Teachers sponsored the annual conference on the teaching of history and the social studies, held last May 7 at the Memorial Union on the campus of the University of Wisconsin, at Madison. Theodore C. Belgan, superintendent of the Minnesota Historical Society and a professor of history in the University of Minnesota, delighted a large audience with his spirited presentation of the theme "Immigration and the Westward Movement in Ballad and Song," in which he was assisted by Mrs John D. Hicks of Madison. Round table discussions were led by Fred C. Gee, Milwaukee, and Mrs. Alice E. Rood, Madison. For the first time, elementary teachers were represented in a round table, and this innovation proved a decided success. Next year the group plans to add a college teachers section.

Other speakers on the May conference program were President Clarence A. Dykstra, Professor Paul Knaplund, and Dr J. Murray Lee, all of the University of Wisconsin; Miss Bernice M. Cadman, Janesville, who presented the National Council's publications; Mrs Ethel Mabie Falk, now of Stevens Point; Ronald B. Edgerton, Madison, acting chairman this year of the standing committee of the W.E.A. during the leave of absence of Professor Burr W. Phillips; and James L. Fitzpatrick and Alfred Reschke, Milwaukee.

E. H. E.

DENVER

Core Course at North High School. Three volunteer groups of 10B students are enrolled in a special core course at North High School, Denver, this fall.

Three units comprise the course. The first, a "Knowing North" unit is designed to give entering pupils a thorough knowledge of the floor plan and equipment of their school, its personnel and regulations together with background material regarding its history and traditions. The unit also delves into the broader aspects of secondary education cost, and the need for high school training.

The second unit deals with health training, and the third unit is a study of the machine age, its history and changing aspects.

Approximately 100 students are enrolled in the course which is being taught by Misses Marie Hollister, Katharine Shattuck, and Myrta Porter, Mrs Margaret Dalgard, Mr L. A. Ward and Mr Paul V. Hill.

Community Study. "A plan to utilize community resources in teaching children has been approved by the policy council of the school system. The new activity consists of introducing pupils to the life around them and the actual workings of the community. It is part of the newly created department of special services, for which the General Education Board has given the School Board a grant of \$5,000 a year.

"The plan lurks under the imposing title of 'The Utilization of Community Resources' and will be directed by Dr Roy A. Hinderman, former supervisor of industrial arts and vocational education.

"Instead of reading about the city government plan of Denver, the children will go to City Hall and see City Council in operation. They will visit the Statehouse and meet members of the Executive Council and learn the functions of various boards and bureaus. . . . 'We won't have any textbooks in the old sense—we are trying to get away from textbooks,' Dr Hinderman said.

"What we will have will be guides to various types of community activity. The children, under supervision, will delve into the actual life that is going on around them.

"We hope to get the children into steel mills and packing plants and rubber plants

and show them how the police department works and the public library operates.'

"Dr Hinderman is working on a plan whereby large groups of children may be sent to public buildings and industrial plants without interfering with the normal operation" (*Rocky Mountain News*, October 12).

Community Study Guide. A brief outline guide, "The School and the Community" was published for the four Colorado regional conferences held in October. Harold Benjamin of the University of Colorado, chairman, and C. L. Cushman, director of research and curriculum, Denver, were members of the committee which prepared the booklet.

M. E. C.

COMPREHENSIVE LIBRARY TEST

The Use of the Library. Grades 11-12, College Freshmen and Sophomores; 1938; 2 forms, no time limit (40-50 minutes); by Stella Pierson, Librarian, and Arthur Gilbert, Professor of Education, Teachers College of Kansas City, Kansas City, Missouri. Sample copies sent on request.

Librarians and social science teachers will welcome this test as a valuable tool in aiding and encouraging pupils to make greater use of library materials.

The tests, constructed by an experienced librarian and a teacher of tests and measurements, are designed to determine quickly the extent of students' previous library experiences, their familiarity with the Dewey Decimal System, their knowledge of abbreviations common in bibliographical references, their acquaintance with library reference tools, and their ability to interpret references in periodical indexes. The two forms have been standardized so that it is possible to use them for measuring the results of definite library training projects.

Experimental use of the tests has revealed that students, especially in the field of social science, both need and welcome this kind of aid in exploring and using the ever-increasing number and variety of resources to be found in libraries.

H. R. M.

SELECTED REFERENCES

"Selected References on Elementary-School Instruction" in the *Elementary School Journal*

for October includes titles in the social sciences (exclusive of articles in *Social Education* and *Social Studies*) by R. M. Tryon, and in geography by Edith P. Parker.

COMMUNITY YOUTH SURVEYS

"In response to an increasing desire among communities, large and small, to find the facts about their own youth, the American Youth Commission will issue about December 10 a 48-page pamphlet entitled *How to Make a Community Youth Survey*. Telling briefly the purposes served by such surveys, and what are essential preliminary steps, the pamphlet proceeds to explain the methods of collecting information and of digesting and interpreting the results.

"Among the many topics covered in the pamphlet are the organization of the survey staff, sampling and interviewing young persons, editing and tabulating the responses, and writing the report. Attention is also given to publicizing the findings.

"The pamphlet will be published as one of the American Council on Education Studies, Series IV, No. 2, and may be secured through the Council, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, at 25 cents a copy" (*Bulletin*, American Youth Commission, November, 1938).

DIRECTORY OF GOVERNMENT FILMS

"A complete list of the motion pictures available from the various government departments and agencies has been compiled into a 16-page mimeographed publication by the Division of The National Emergency Council of the newly created United States Film Service, of which Pare Lorentz is the director and Arch A. Mercey, Assistant Director. These directories are available to schools, colleges, adult educational groups and other organizations without cost.

"While requests for bookings should be forwarded direct to the government agency distributing the desired films, the United States Film Service will assist in obtaining films and in planning educational motion picture programs. It also operates as a central office of information about Federal motion picture activities. The Service is located in the Commercial Building, 14th and G Sts, N. W., Washington, D. C." (*Educational Screen*).

CLASSROOM FILMS

"International Geographic Pictures, New York City, announce the completion of a new two-reel 16mm sound educational picture entitled *Territorial Expansion of the United States from 1783 to 1853*, which is the first of a series of geographic and historic classroom films now in the process of preparation. The film shows, in chronological order, the growth of this country from colonial times to its present continental size, exclusive of territorial possessions. Animated maps are used extensively, supplemented with authentic representations of history's great events. . . .

"The second subject in this series, *Territorial Possessions of the United States*, rapidly approaching completion, continues the story of American expansion. It explains how our insular possessions were acquired and portrays historic events pertinent to the acquisitions. . . ." (*Educational Screen*).

PEACE FILM

"Exclusive 16mm rights on the new eight-reel film, *The Fight for Peace*, produced by Warwick Pictures, have been acquired by Post Pictures Corporation, 723 Seventh Avenue, New York City. The picture is a powerful indictment of warring nations and shows what happens to those which are unprepared. Composed largely of newsreel footage, it presents leading figures in the World War and grim, real shots of the war, with its accompaniment of destruction and despair, followed by sequences showing the rise of the regimes of dictators, contemporary figures, recent aggressions by Italy, Japan, and Germany, and the Spanish Civil War.

"*The Fight for Peace* has been endorsed by many organizations as a vivid plea for peace. The story is by Hendrik Van Loon and narration by David Ross" (*Educational Screen*).

BUILDING AMERICA

The first two issues of *Building America* scheduled for the current school year have already appeared. They are concerned with aviation and crime. Other issues in preparation concern fuel, women, taxes, lumber, business, and civil liberties. For subscriptions, orders of back issues, or a full list of available titles, address *Building America*, E. M. Hale

and Company, Inc., 5193 Plankinton Arcade, Milwaukee, or 425 West 123rd Street, New York City.

FIRST ISSUE WANTED

The American Book Company, 88 Lexington Avenue, New York City, will pay 50 cents each for copies, to a total of 100, of the January, 1937, number of *Social Education* (Volume I, Number 1). Copies must be in condition suitable to use in bound volumes.

RECENT MAGAZINE ARTICLES ON TEACHING THE SOCIAL STUDIES

- Baker, G. Derwood. "An Eleventh-Grade Field Study: the Coal Industry," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XVII: 173-88, October 19, 1938. Account of a trip made by fifteen pupils in the Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University, under the auspices of the Sloan Foundation, to the Pennsylvania and West Virginia coal region.
- Biddle, William W. "Propaganda and the Curriculum," *Curriculum Journal*, IX: 306-09, September, 1938. Needs, procedures, and warnings.
- Champine, Marjorie R. "National Youth Administration in the High School," *School Review*, XLVI: 679-684, November, 1938. A comparison of 100 pupils in the Marshall High School, Minneapolis, receiving federal aid with 100 not receiving aid. Differences in school marks, subjects elected, family status, registration with social agencies, socio-economic status, earnings, clubs, and morale are reported.
- Finch, Hardy R. "Film Production in the Schools," *Educational Screen*, XVII: 216-18, September, 1938. Several of the class and school activities described are related to the social studies.
- Goetting, M. L. "Some Trends in Organizing the Social Studies," *Education*, LIX: 87-92, October, 1938. Review of fusion and integration proposals of the past twelve years.
- Hanus, Paul H. "Realistic Teaching of Government and How to Get It," *School Review*, XLVI: 657-666, November, 1938. Criticism of current civic instruction as failing to develop convictions and action, with an appeal for making realistic study of local government not only permissible but required.
- Harap, Henry. "Seventy-One Courses in Consumption," *School Review*, XLVI: 577-596. An analysis, together with some recommendations.
- Johansen, Lorine. "Exploitation: Grand Island [Nebraska] Senior High School's Unit Correlating American History and Literature," *Clearing House*, 13: 39-42, September, 1938. A class-selected topic leads to a study of aspects of literature, history, and related material.
- Kaltenborn, H. V. "Radio: the Fifth Estate," *Harvard Educational Review*, VIII: 433-53, October, 1938. The emerging role of radio in American life, especially political life, with incidental attention to education.
- Lewis, Robert S. "Building Pupils' Defenses through a Unit on Propaganda," *Clearing House*, 13: 22-4, September, 1938. Study of newspaper headlines, ad-

vertising, and radio ballyhoo in the Secondary School of the Colorado College of Education, Greeley.

McCormac, D. Leon. "A Southern School's Unit on Race Relations," *Clearing House*, XIII: 109-11, October, 1938. A junior high school class in Columbia, South Carolina, studies the background and present status of Negroes.

Maier, John V. "Integration Wins in Wilson Junior High 2-Year Test," *Clearing House*, 13: 3-8, September, 1938. Enthusiastic account of a non-subject, cooperative learning program in Muncie, Indiana.

Mannion, Laurence J. "'Revolution' as a Fad in History," *Education*, LIX: 92-5, October, 1938. Objects that current overuse of "revolution" to describe commercial, agricultural, industrial, and other change exaggerates suddenness and destroys sense of continuity.

Newell, Bernice. "Trends in Community Surveys," *Educational Method*, XVIII: 7-13, October, 1938. The development of surveys with attention to procedures, organization of data, and practical value. Useful citations and references.

Pikholt, Sol. "The Social Studies Laboratory: a Program of Enrichment for the Superior Social Studies Student," *High Points*, XX: 11-15, May, 1938. Equipment and use of a social studies center in the Samuel J. Tilden High School, Brooklyn, New York.

Raths, Louis. "Some Evaluations of the Trip [of Lincoln School Pupils to the Bituminous Coal Region]," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XVII: 189-208, October 19, 1938. Gains in social understanding and sense of responsibility.

Rice, Winfield L. "Civics Afloat," *Curriculum Journal*, IX: 319-20, September, 1938. Account of ferry-boat trips for high school students around the New York waterfront.

Smith, Enid S. "Evaluating the Club Program," *Education*, LIX: 99-103, October, 1938. Criteria used and findings that emerged from a five-year study of clubs in sixty high schools.

Sutherland, Miriam. "A Community Treks with its Eight-Year Olds," *Childhood Education*, XV: 127-30, November, 1938. Furnishing a log cabin with class-made furniture, feather bed, quilt, and afghan together with community contributions, culminating in a community housewarming.

Tolo, Harold M. "Preparation for Social Studies Understanding," *Wisconsin Journal of Education*, LXXII: 122-24, October, 1938. Responsibility for developing social sensitivity and social intelligence.

Wood, Charles H. "Dover Pupil Committee Plan Upset Civics Routine," *Clearing House*, 13: 20-21, September, 1938. Pupil grading by elected committees on the basis of democratically determined criteria, in New Jersey.

Readers are invited to send in items—programs and accounts of meetings, curriculum changes and classroom experiments, or personal items of general interest—for "Notes and News." Items for February should be sent in by January 1.

Contributors to this issue include C. C. Barnes, Mary E. Christy, E. H. Evans, H. R. Meyering, Arthur W. Moehlman, and Clifford J. Smith.

BOOK REVIEWS

Teaching the Social Studies on the Secondary School Level. By T. H. Schutte. New York: Prentice Hall, 1938. Pp. xv, 583. \$3.25.

This rather ample volume bears a general resemblance to certain works which have preceded it, such as Fancier and Crawford's *Teaching the Social Studies* (1932), Swindler's *Social Studies Instruction in the Secondary Schools* (1933), Bining and Bining's *Teaching the Social Studies in Secondary Schools* (1935), and Wesley's *Teaching the Social Studies* (1937).

As social studies, which, according to Wesley, are "the social sciences simplified for pedagogical purposes," Dr Schutte lists history, political science, economics, sociology, geography, philosophy, and ethics, and "doubtless many phases of psychology." Wesley names the first five of these—if civics is to be regarded as the equivalent of political science—and "various combinations." Bining and Bining observe that "political science, as such is taught in few secondary schools of our country today." They suggest, in addition to the five subjects named by Wesley, problems of democracy, otherwise modern social problems.

For purposes of further comparison, it may be mentioned that the *Conclusions and Recommendations* of the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies (1934) give recognition to history, economics, politics, sociology, geography, psychology, and anthropology.

In the hundred pages of his opening chapter, "The Nature and Content of the Social Studies," Dr Schutte gives relatively full attention to each social studies field and defends the inclusion of philosophy. While aware that many competent thinkers would disagree, he believes that, after all, the philosopher belongs more definitely in the category of the social scientists than elsewhere. The author

enlarges upon this subject in his eighty-page second chapter, "The Philosophy of Education":

Indeed, it becomes increasingly necessary that all philosophies be restudied, and that facts, laws, and principles be evaluated again and again, and that new interpretations be made from time to time, in order that the findings of science may be intelligently used in dealing with the problems of man. Thus, growth in scientific knowledge increasingly demands growth in philosophy. Much social stagnation exists because of the unequal progress of science and invention on the one hand, and human relations on the other (p. 102f.).

The history of the rise and decline of civilization is essentially the history of the inconsistencies between static conditions and contemporary dynamic conditions. Material and spiritual progress must remain reasonably equal if disaster is to be averted (p. 103).

While Dr Schutte may not succeed in convincing all his readers that philosophy is really one of the social studies, he has made an excellent argument for the necessity of the philosophical viewpoint. Moreover, one is likely to conclude the reading of this particular chapter with a more vivid realization that an adequate philosophy of education is conditioned upon an adequate philosophy of life.

The briefer third chapter deals with "Issues, Aims, and Functions of Secondary Education." Issues are defined as problems of fundamental policy. Recently, these issues "have been definitely augmented by the multiplication of types of schools, by the great increase of enrollment, and by the changing social conditions" (p. 181). Aims are considered as the ultimate large goals, while functions are held to have reference to the means by which the aims are to be attained.

"Aims, Functions, and Objectives of the Social Studies" is the title of the fourth chapter. This section of the book, for its "frame of reference," draws upon chapter ii of the *Con-*

clusions and Recommendations of the Report of the Commission on the Social Studies. The more significant items in this frame of reference are thus set forth: (a) the nature and functions of the social sciences; (b) the conditioning factors in American life; and (c) choices deemed possible and desirable for society in the present and near future. This somewhat brief section closes with a list of 154 aims restated from educational literature.

The fifth chapter, treating of "The Curriculum" in seventy pages, has three main divisions. The first contains a discussion of the curriculum in general; the second deals specifically with the social studies curriculum; and the third is concerned with the role of education in our society.

In his fifth chapter, Dr Schutte discusses "Instructional Technique in the Social Studies." The methods dealt with are: oral, textbook, question-and-answer, topical, source, problem, project, individual, unit, thesis-response, supervised study, testing and examining, and the socialized procedure. This hundred-page chapter is well written and would do credit to a treatise on methodology.

"The Problem of Transfer: Making the School Activities Function in Life," is the title of the short seventh chapter. The trend of the discussion is indicated by this sentence from the closing paragraph:

We emphasize, then, that both the content and the method of procedure are vital factors in the production of transfer from the classroom to life, and, further, that the fundamental justification for any school activity is its influence upon the building of conduct patterns (p. 441).

The eighth chapter, "Current Events," considers aims, values, materials, and procedures.

"Testing, Measuring, and Examining," are discussed in the ninety-six pages of the ninth chapter. Historical backgrounds are sketched, and current types of tests described and illustrated.

Perhaps the most important paragraph of the seven-page final chapter, "Social Science and the Teacher," is the following:

On levels of education below that of the college, it seems clear that, although the teacher should reveal the actualities of the social order, it is also emphatically his duty to produce conduct patterns, to make the social order intelligible, to prepare the pupil to take his place in society, to reveal the area of activity in which one may find a life work, to interest the pupil in a definite

field of endeavor, and to train him in the study of a more or less restricted realm (p. 565).

It is not to be supposed that the author is a proponent of a certain form of ethnocentrism now popular in parts of the continent of Europe. Nevertheless, these laudatory statements regarding the Teutons are to be found in the course of the opening pages of the volume:

This idea of independence, of liberty, was spread to the land of the Angles by the Teutonic tribes. . . . It was, therefore, in England that the idea of popular sovereignty first gained a full acceptance. When popular sovereignty was once born, it was but natural that the idea of divine authority in the rulership of earthly affairs should become archaic (p. 35f.).

The "land of the Angles," be it said, was originally the home of the Celtic Britons. Angles, Saxons, Jutes, and other Teutons, entered the country which we now call England under compulsions similar to those actuating their relatives, the Goths and Vandals, in their well known invasions. Many of the Britons had the misfortune to die at the hands of their Teutonic conquerors before they achieved a genuine Teutonic concept of independence and liberty. As for popular sovereignty, manhood suffrage is a fairly recent achievement in England, and descendants of Anglo-Saxons bought and sold human beings in our country within the memory of some few yet living. Only a short time ago the press announced that at last individuals were to be eligible for admission to the British military college, regardless of the position of those individuals in the social pyramid. Hebrew Samuel inveighed against kings, the Athenians gave us the word "democracy," and French-Swiss Jean Jacques Rousseau wrote *The Social Contract*. In the evolution of modern political ideals, the Teutonic peoples have played an honorable part. Substantial contributions, however, have come from other sources.

The reviewer has found only one misspelled word in the entire volume. This occurs in the last sentence of the final chapter, and is, of course, the result of a printer's error.

A valuable feature is the list of "Selected References" at the close of each chapter. Chapter and page references are not given, however.

Dr Schutte's book presents unmistakable evidence of broad scholarship, wide reading through many areas of education, and pains-

taking research. All in all, it seems to this reviewer that it may be the best work of its kind in the field.

J. F. SANTEE

Oregon Normal School
Monmouth

The First Textbooks in American History and Their Compiler John M'Culloch. By Alice Winifred Spieseke. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia Univ., 1938. Pp. vi, 135. \$1.60.

Dr Spieseke's monograph, confining itself to the textbooks in American history compiled or written by John M'Culloch, is a scholarly investigation primarily concerned with the questions of (1) who was M'Culloch and what qualifications did he have for writing history textbooks, and (2) upon what sources did he depend, and how critically did he use them? Inasmuch as present evidence points to M'Culloch's *Introduction to the History of America* (Philadelphia, 1787) as the first of a long line of textbooks in American history, these are significant questions.

Although little is known about the "father" of the American history textbook, that little has been made available at last through what must have been very painstaking research. Two chapters of the monograph supply what biographical data could be found, while three chapters are devoted to a critical survey of the sources used by M'Culloch in his first text and in the several editions of his second book, *A Concise History of the United States*, the first edition of which was published in Philadelphia in 1795.

Emigrating to Philadelphia from Scotland on the eve of the American Revolution, M'Culloch, a "thoroughbred printer," was soon engaged as a printer, publisher, and bookseller. Without benefit of much education (possibly not an elementary schooling), with no experience as a teacher, and apparently with no educational need in mind, M'Culloch compiled a textbook in American history and found for it a market of such proportions as to encourage him to write a second text which in time went through several editions—all anonymously published.

Anonymous publication and plagiarism seem to have gone hand in hand in the writing of textbooks in the late eighteenth century,

and M'Culloch, an ardent churchman, is no exception on this score. More than one hundred pages in M'Culloch's first book appear not only to have been lifted from a reader compiled by Noah Webster but to have been printed from the same type! For other parts of his first book M'Culloch leaned heavily on several other sources, which, together with the Webster reader, he had printed. In his second book, M'Culloch used different sources but failed to identify them, to use quotation marks, or to indicate omission of words. On the other hand, M'Culloch seems to have copied his sources faithfully, to have refrained from personal views, and to have presented controversial issues with proper regard for the facts. That M'Culloch's sources were as good as they were was a matter of chance in the author's opinion.

Dr Spieseke, assistant professor of history in Teachers College, Columbia University, has produced an able and scholarly work which should prove especially valuable to history teachers, students of educational history, and book collectors. Incidentally, doctoral dissertations of this caliber are worthy of publication.

TYLER KEPNER

Brookline Public Schools
Brookline, Massachusetts

Let's Go To School. By Albion H. Horrall, Lydia E. Codone, Mabel S. Willson, and Leah Smith Rhodes. New York: McGraw Hill, 1938. Pp. xii, 429. \$3.00.

Out of the San Jose, California schools comes one of the most attractive volumes of the year, *Let's Go To School: Integrative Experiences in a Public Elementary School*. It is made up in the new longer page with narrower margins, bound in soft colors smartly lettered and printed in clean cut, readable type. An outstanding feature is the wealth of full-page photographs of pupil activities and enterprises. School administrators, on learning from the title page that these photographs were taken by the instructor in photography at the San Jose State College, will be filled with admiration, not unmixed with envy, for such invaluable assistance in interpreting educational purposes.

The title is good propaganda to oppose to the usual cartoons, jokes, and more serious

pronouncements of adults who still think of schoolboys as going unwillingly to school and who do their best (although perhaps unconsciously) to perpetuate such attitudes. The authors are an assistant superintendent and three teachers. They describe their work as that of an "ordinary public school" not "highly privileged" except perhaps in "the enthusiasm of its teaching force."

The four hundred and twenty-nine pages are divided into two parts. Part One, "A Modern Elementary School," presents "Some Interesting Situations" (6 pages), "The School" (12 pages), "Philosophy and Curriculum" (57 pages), "Integrating Influences" (39 pages), and "Evaluations" (30 pages). Part Two devotes 282 pages to a detailed description of three units: "The Study of Animals" (high third and low fourth grade), "The Community of San Jose" (high fourth grade) and "European Architecture" (high fifth grade and low sixth grade). Teachers in the middle grades will especially appreciate the selection of the detailed descriptions from this level, since so few examples are available for them as compared with primary and secondary teachers. The four-page index does not do justice to the contents.

In both parts of the book "progressives" as well as "essentialists" will find much to approve warmly, and a few phases to which they will probably raise strenuous objections. On the whole it represents an early stage in the transitions from an unintegrated program to as great a degree of integration as experience finds desirable.

The "Interesting Situations" vary from children's challenging one another's statements and demanding evidence to refusing to accept free tickets to a football game because of conflict with school club meetings, to a Justice Court with child policemen tagging and arresting offenders and making complaints before a judge who passes sentence. Such exercises as the last have often been abandoned by schools that have had a longer experience with the unfortunate emotional concomitants.

The description of the school is necessarily incomplete owing to space limitations. The reader who attempts to analyze objectively may question whether many of the changes in class atmosphere (such as "entering the school naturally—not with a bored manner")

were not due more to a change in the teachers' philosophy than to the particular curriculum set up, but will agree heartily that the change was in the right direction.

The statements on philosophy will probably meet general approval. The "Curriculum" on the other hand seems to this reviewer the weakest part of the book. Later in the discussion, the authors reveal that they themselves are dissatisfied with it and propose soon to make changes. Under the present set-up, the center of interest in most cases is merely the name of a geographical area. Little planning has been done to provide for continuous and cumulative growth in abilities from unit to unit or level to level. In general each unit by itself might be very well worked out, but sequence of any kind would still be lacking. Specific units are open to criticism, for example such prehistoric peoples as cave, tree and lake dwellers for seven- and eight-year-olds.

On the credit side, the units are launched in an interesting manner, the organization of the groups has been thoughtfully made and is well described; and great varieties of activities are used. One may question the long lists of outcomes presented without evidence as to how their existence was ascertained and may wish that more of the integrative influences had been secured through the centers of interest themselves rather than through school clubs. The evaluations are inconclusive.

It would be interesting to analyze fully Part Two and to point out the undoubted values of most of the activities as well as the points at which the school itself will probably another time concentrate more on behavior and less on scattered information, but space limitations forbid.

The detailed descriptions of three units will be especially helpful to such teachers as fear to attack any large unit because of the multiplicity of problems presented; they will find here specific directions even for the construction projects and the making of costumes. And perhaps even more encouraging will be the fact that they may recognize in the specimens of children's work presented, types of products very similar to those with which they are familiar. Thereby they may win courage to make the plunge and strike out in the attempt to do something "on their own."

MARY G. KELTY

Chicago

Appraisal of Newer Elementary School Practices. By J. Wayne Wrightstone. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia Univ., 1938. Pp. xiii, 221. \$2.25.

The volume is the result of a cooperative research project. The first one hundred and fifty pages of the book deal with descriptions, comparisons, and interpretations of conventional and newer type of elementary schools, their origins, trends, and curricula. In the remaining seventy-one pages the author reports his attempt to gather objective evidence that would show the relative achievement of the two types of schools in attaining a set of six cardinal objectives which were adopted by New York state in 1931, namely: "(1) to understand and practice desirable social relationships; (2) to discover and develop individual pupil aptitudes; (3) to cultivate the habit of critical thinking; (4) to appreciate and desire worth-while activities; (5) to gain command of common integrating knowledges and skills; and (6) to develop a sound body and normal mental attitude" (p. 120). Ready made tests were used when they helped to determine growth according to the selected objectives. New instruments of appraisal were devised to obtain objective evidence relative to such characteristics as civic beliefs and attitudes, critical thinking, certain individual aptitudes, and appreciation of worthwhile activities. Sylabi based on these objectives are printed by the department of education at Albany.)

The first part of this book makes no new contribution to the descriptive and illustrative literature already available on the newer type of schools. Chapter vi, however, which gives the author's interpretation of the six cardinal objectives of elementary education, should be a challenge to the thinking and practices of administrators and teachers.

It seemed to the reviewer that the author devoted too little space to the outstanding feature of the study, the attempt to measure the so-called intangibles in education. A critical evaluation of the proposed techniques of measurement and their resulting educational implications should prove stimulating to graduate students and research workers in education, and should encourage further research toward more effective practices.

HAZEL PREHM

Waterloo (East), Iowa

The Daily Newspaper and Higher Education.

By Rex F. Harlow. Stanford Univ.: Stanford Univ. Press, 1938. Pp. xviii, 44. \$1.00.

One of the worst headaches to administrative officials of a university is its relations with the press. At the same time there are few sources of news for the metropolitan press that yield as unsatisfactory results as these same educational institutions, when attention rises above athletics and "campus chitchat." Nevertheless the large news gathering associations, as well as nearby papers have reporters on large campuses, and all universities maintain some kind of a press bureau of their own to gather and supply news to them.

Largely because of the generally unsatisfactory relations that have developed, Stanford University undertook a study of the problem as it exists in the Pacific Coast states. For social studies teachers the most interesting proposal growing out of its findings is the suggestion that the sources of information about public affairs in large universities be tapped by the press for the benefit of a citizenship education program. While on first thought this seems like a desirable element in solving one of our largest problems—adult education in public affairs—reflection will soon reduce its possibilities to a narrow field. Something might be done by a large daily with feature articles centered about research on the subject of racial differences that would tend to undermine the inaccurate and socially dangerous concepts commonly held. But could anything be done with a problem on which the paper had a declared policy? Perhaps only in the case of unusually distinguished journalism. The strong trend in newspapers today toward a totalitarian policy, in which all departments—

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editorial, news, and feature—are pointed toward indoctrination with the specific conclusions regarding public affairs, is the very antithesis of the proposal. Who, for instance, can imagine the *Chicago Tribune* using the social science facilities of the University of Chicago for such a venture in adult education? But there are newspapers which might try, and social studies teachers would like to see it attempted.

Naturally, most of the study under review is of interest only to the professional journalist and the university administrator. To them it should be a first step toward establishing their mutual relations on a more satisfactory basis. The recommendations have the excellent quality of seeing the problem from the standpoint of the journalist as well as that of the educator.

ELMER ELLIS

University of Missouri

Economic Problems of Modern Society. By John N. Andrews and Rudolf K. Michels. New York: Ronald Press, 1937. Pp. xvi, 798. \$3.75.

The authors of this text in introductory economics for students of considerable maturity have succeeded in giving a concise yet meaningful identification of some problems of modern society. A year after the volume was published the problems selected—technological change, living standards, money, banking, business organization, transportation, business cycles, population, economic planning, unemployment, public ownership, social insurance, agriculture, taxation, world trade—appear as vital as ever. The topical treatment follows a logical organization, and consumption is placed at the beginning rather than at the end. With the discussion of problems the writers have been able to interweave a good deal of recognized economic principles, but, obviously, they have conceived their task as that of providing as up-to-date and dependable information as space permitted.

The text is one of the first to use the report of the National Resources Committee on Technological Trends and National Policy. It endorses the statement of the committee that scientific developments in the future will have as important economic consequences as those of the past. It takes as axiomatic the

conclusion that much of the unemployment in the United States is due to technological change. Therefore the readers are challenged to find means of reducing this type. The discussion on business cycles only serves to reveal differences of opinion as to the causes or operating factors in extreme business fluctuations. Among recommended ways of overcoming cyclical fluctuations the authors suggest social insurance, international cooperation, and economic planning. Naturally, this requires some attention to the recovery program of the Roosevelt administration. This is an unavoidable necessity, it seems to the reviewer, whether one is dealing with principles or with problems since the American economy has been altered by New Deal measures.

The bibliographies are up to date, the printing good, the style straightforward. On the whole it is a very useful text and one adapted to the encouragement of further study of our economic problems as a desirable activity for the citizen. If revisions are contemplated, it is suggested that more attention be given to the economic effects of competitive armaments and of economic nationalism.

GUY V. PRICE

Teachers College
Kansas City, Missouri

The Rise of the New Federalism. By Jane Perry Clark. New York: Columbia Univ. Press, 1938. Pp. xviii, 347. \$3.50.

The problems treated in this volume are central to an understanding of what is going on in the most important area of governmental change in this country, federal-state relations. Several previous attempts to describe federal-state and interstate cooperation have been made; none approaches Professor Clark's in comprehensiveness, thoroughness, and judgment.

The author considers a wide variety of relations, running from informal cooperation and agreements and contracts through cooperative use of government personnel and interdependent law and administration, to the whole range of questions involved in grants-in-aid and reciprocal tax relations. Her approach to these problems is essentially legal and administrative. She is less concerned to show in detail the actual operation of different

cooperative activities than to indicate the development of legislative policy and its implementation and application by the relevant administrative agencies.

The whole evolution of federal-state relations which Professor Clark here traces has come about to achieve what Tocqueville saw, already a century ago, as an objective of politics in this country—"to elude the numberless difficulties resulting from their federal constitution." He was then "struck" by "the ingenious devices" already developed to this end. Were he to visit us again, he would be even more struck by the greater variety and scope of the evasions we now practice. Professor Clark's study is an invaluable—and most welcome—index to contemporary federalism, altogether indispensable to students of government in action as well as in books.

PHILLIPS BRADLEY

Queens College
New York City

The Folklore of Capitalism. By Thurman W. Arnold. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press, 1937. Pp. vii, 400. \$3.00.

It depends on how you like your self-analysis (community not individual) how you will take this book. If you like it sugar-coated, so that the shock of revelation will be tempered by comfortable rationalization, then stay away from *The Folklore of Capitalism*. But if you don't mind tasting the acidities of an unafraid examination of the myths, mores, and mumblings which men live by, then you will probably enjoy this book very much indeed—however much you may disagree with some of the premises, and the resulting inferences.

No book—perhaps of the last decade—has excited so much controversy. Professor Arnold, now in charge of the monopoly section of the Department of Justice, has long been an advocate of more wit and less solemnity about our institutions, especially the legal. His *Symbols of Government* precipitated a considerable degree of violent approval and disapproval among the defenders of orthodoxy; this book will engender a good deal more disagreement among its readers. But that is probably what Professor Arnold is out for anyway, so he will be satisfied, and his readers both enlightened and entertained.

What the author sets out to do is to indicate to how great an extent we build up elaborate rituals and rationalizations to escape the often unpleasant reality of how and why our economic and political institutions exist and function. A selection from his chapter headings will illustrate at once the contents of the book and his method and his purpose—"the place of learning in the distribution of goods," "the use of the language of private property to describe an industrial army," "the traps which lie in definitions and polar words," "the effect of the anti-trust laws in encouraging large corporations," "the ritual of corporate reorganization," "the benevolence of taxation by private organizations," "the malevolence of taxation by government," "some principles of political dynamics."

I happen to like this book very much, though I do not agree with more than one of the premises, doubt the logic of some of the conclusions (they often are jerked into the context rather violently), and regret the looseness of the thinking in which this really rigid thinker sometimes indulges. But that only makes the book highly readable and exceptionally stimulating to one's own capacity for

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PHILLIPS BRADLEY

The Politicos—1865–1896. By Matthew Josephson. New York: Harcourt Brace, 1938. Pp. ix, 760. \$4.50.

The same author's *Robber Barons* was a major contribution to an understanding of the folkways of capitalist enterprise from the Civil War to the defeat of Bryan in 1896. Here he has turned his attention to the mores of the politicians in the same period, and traced, with scarifying frankness, the intimate association between political power and economic plunder. The story which he tells—generally in its most sordid details of human motivations and activities—is not new, nor has he attempted to add new data from the sources. But it is freshly told, and entertainingly written in the best tradition of popularizing the often obscure and generally forgotten records of a period.

And this was a period of critical importance for the direction which both economic and political policies would take in the twentieth century. We were emerging from an agrarian past into the most rapidly expanding industrialization any country had yet undergone. Economic interests of all sorts—transportation, manufacturing, commerce, communication—were developing at an unprecedented rate. With half of a virgin continent still open to conquest, it was small wonder that those who controlled these forces within the framework of a laissez faire orthodoxy should be impatient of all restraints. Even those restraints which we now see nature imposes on the rate and the character of exploitation were disregarded by those who were converting into a reality the quickest "get-rich" that man has so far dreamed of.

Certainly the political system of the Jeffersonian tradition proved no barrier to the frankly ruthless, and often contemptuous, disregard that the economic royalists of those days displayed. Constitutional interpretation

to preserve corporate freedom from state or national regulation at the top was only a politer phase of the war of attrition or political control generally. There was not a single aspect of national, state, or local politics—from tariff manipulation to local franchise grabbing—that was not distorted, even prostituted in the era of the emergence of Big Business.

What the author has done is to examine the record of corruption and explore the rationalizations of those who created it. The "Politicos" were after all a product of their environment. Since the economic order of the day was a frankly cynical disregard of the "forgotten" men and women of the period, is it to be wondered at that these same people were the victims of political exploitation? Both economic expansion and political privilege-granting were virgin fields for ambitious men undeterred by scruples of a nicer era of public conscience. If Mr Josephson's story is relatively murky, if the eclipse of morality in political life seems to have been total, it is not without a moral for our own time. While his selection of materials leaves an impression of unrelieved gloom—and other interpretations have been made of the period—there is here a rich store of candid self-portrayal by the actors themselves, which speaks louder than any interpretive dialectic. It is a book which should be on every school library shelf and widely read by future voters as well as present ones.

PHILLIPS BRADLEY

American Authors: 1600–1900. A Biographical Dictionary of American Literature. Ed by Stanley J. Kunitz and Howard Haycraft. New York: H. W. Wilson, 1938. Pp. vi, 846. \$5.00.

Such a collection of thirteen hundred brief biographies, varying from a hundred and fifty to twenty-five hundred words, is directed toward a distinct need in the upper elementary grades as well as in the high school, and hitherto there has been no single volume to supply the need. The preface of this book truthfully remarks that, until this volume appeared, it was necessary to rely "on the twenty volumes of the great *Dictionary of American Biography* or the even more numerous volumes of the *National Cyclopaedia of American*

Biography, to be found only in the larger public and institutional libraries of the country." Moreover, in spite of the large amount of material included, this book is manageable in size and weight. It should prove especially useful in those schools which are trying to work out some integration between social studies and literature.

Since this review is addressed especially to social studies teachers, it may not be out of place to remark that one of the results that teachers of literature fear in such a process of integration is the loss of a certain awareness of life as seen through literature. A book like this does not offer stimulus to that kind of awareness, but it does offer a bridge between the teaching of that and the teaching of social history.

The individual sketches undertake to give the main outlines of the subject's life and career aside from what he wrote and to place him within the frame of his own times. The chief works on which his claims to distinction rest are named and briefly evaluated, but in few cases, if any, does this form the chief preoccupation of the sketch. The book is interested, then, in what we might call the

personal details of social history rather than in a history of American literature.

This being true, the omissions are even more surprising than they might otherwise be. If you want to know what Theodore Roosevelt wrote, for instance, this book is not going to tell you. Or Woodrow Wilson. Or Frederick Jackson Turner. Or Henry M. Stanley. Or Adelaide Crapsey of whose poetry the *Dictionary of American Biography* says that it became "a symbol of the initiate to the young poets of the day." Or her father, the "Last of the Heretics."

It is common knowledge that the temptation to quarrel with the terms of exclusion and inclusion is always present in reviewing such a work as this, but it is also common knowledge that few reviewers resist the temptation. This one is not going to resist! In fact she admits that the volume's criteria for inclusion and exclusion have quite escaped her analysis.

The title page reads *American Authors 1600-1900*. Yet many authors treated died after 1900: Mark Twain in 1910, John Burroughs in 1921, George W. Cable in 1925. Perhaps the date 1900 may be taken to indicate the date

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before which the main body of literary contribution must have been made. Well, Roosevelt wrote most of his books in the eighties, Wilson in the eighties and nineties, Turner his most important historical essay in 1895, and Stanley's *How I Found Livingstone* was thrilling the reading public in 1872, *Through the Dark Continent* in 1878, and *In Darkest Africa* was published in six languages in 1890. During all those years Stanley was an American citizen. The influence of his books on American thought concerning Africa and Christian missionaries in Africa is incalculable. Moreover the books themselves are, even in the present generation, enthralling tales of adventure and discovery.

The preface speaks of the book's "primary emphasis" on "professional" authors but its inclusion also of "many educators, statesmen (with the exception of Presidents of the United States) . . . and the like." That accounts for the omission of Roosevelt and Wilson, perhaps, but how does being President of the United States keep Lincoln's Gettysburg speech from being literature and having to be accounted for in any inclusive consideration of American literature? John C. Calhoun is included by virtue of his pronouncements on the theory of government and Alexander Hamilton and Charles Sumner, but not George Mason nor Stephen A. Douglas nor Jefferson Davis, nor, being Presidents, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison or either John or J. Q. Adams.

Moreover there are included too many such obscure figures as Joel Palmer about whom the *Dictionary of American Biography* gathered together with great difficulty enough facts to make a sketch. Wholly without real literary merit, his diary of his overland journey to Oregon in 1845 served for the next ten years as an excellent guide book for the Oregon Trail and remains as an important contemporary record of that historic migration. It is in no sense important in our literary tradition.

Now there are no hard feelings about this, because it fell to the editorial lot of the present reviewer to write that sketch in the *DAB* after some fifteen better qualified persons had declined. As it stands it represents a real triumph of dogged patience and dumb luck in research, and she is grateful if it ever did anybody any good. Yet she does quarrel with the sense of proportion that in a consideration of American

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literature includes that diary and leaves out Lincoln's Gettysburg speech—on any ground.
K. E. C.

A Southerner Discovers the South. By Jonathan Daniels. New York: Macmillan, 1938. Pp. viii, 346. \$3.00.

Jonathan Daniels is the editor of the *Raleigh News and Observer*. Last Spring he made an automobile trip through the South, starting from Washington, D. C., and swinging west and south to Arkansas and Louisiana and back through the Gulf States. He visited industrial centers where textiles and iron were produced, inspected the federal projects at Morris Dam and Dyess and the private experiment in agricultural cooperation at Hillhouse in the Mississippi delta. He then drove south and east to find the lingering presence of Huey Long in Louisiana and to revel in the charm of New Orleans, Montgomery, and Charleston.

Mr Daniels talked mostly with editors and politicians. As a liberal he seems to have gravitated naturally toward that type in the communities visited. The conversations, with which

the book is generously sprinkled, seem to have turned mostly about the stock Southern topics of agrarians, industrial exploiters, Negroes, demagogues, and share-croppers. The opinions expressed and the conclusions reached on these topics seem also to have been more or less standard. They run about as follows: The South is breeding laborers faster than it can employ them at a living wage. The Negro is being slowly pushed aside by white men and women who must have jobs. Northern railroads and capitalists, with plenty of aid from a few natives, are plundering the section's resources and reducing it to a tributary status. Land owners and share-croppers alike are the victims of cotton and a general agricultural situation about which no one seems able to do anything. Labor can not organize as long as the supply is so far above the demand and as long as rural provincialism is so strong. The Agrarians are a well-meaning but impractical group. Hope, if there is any for the South, must come along lines being suggested by the regional planners in Chapel Hill.

All of this is highly interesting and valuable, especially when told as well as Mr Daniels tells it. Conversation is evidently at a high level among the upper groups in this section. But did it enable Mr Daniels to "discover the South"? Can that be done without attending a church service or talking to a clergyman? How about the great masses of "garden-variety" Negroes and whites? What about the county officials who dominate most localities? Are not the great majority of Southern people conservative, even reactionary, in matters of social change? Few men of these types were on Mr Daniels' calling list. He seems to have discovered a very small part of the South.

The book, however, has real value for those who would understand the South of today. Much that throws light on the economic conditions described as constituting the nation's number one economic problem is here presented. Something of the personal and emotional flavor of the section is indirectly suggested. Changes, which are altering the whole picture, are pointed out with a clarity not found in any other work on the South. The student of contemporary America will do well to read and ponder this book.

AVERY CRAVEN

The University of Chicago

The Promise of Tomorrow. By Walter E. Myer and Clay Coss. Washington: Civic Education Service, 1938. Pp. xvi, 541. \$2.50.

Each of the three sections of this book constitutes a fairly distinct unit. Section I treats the "historical and economic background" and "certain problems" current in America. In this there is little which is new, but it is an acceptable compilation of data from varied sources. The bibliographies are good. The second section discusses "problems of character and personality which must be rightly solved if an individual is to succeed." It seeks to give assurance that such factors as good physical and mental health, hard work, the social graces, and adequate preparation are imperative, and to make "practical" suggestions for the attainment of them.

The chief merit of the book seems to lie in the third section in which the authors attempt to "give specific information with respect to a large number of representative occupations describing the nature of the work each calls for, the preparation . . . qualifications . . . compensation" and "possibilities" of employment. This is an excellent summarization of practically all vocational fields and is supplemented by a wide and authoritative bibliography. This part should be of great assistance to (a) students who are planning for vocations and (b) teachers and others who are called upon to counsel young people on vocational matters. The weakest phase of the treatment seems to be that concerning the probabilities for employment. Statements like "even during years such as 1936 and 1937, however, the large majority of civil engineers had little difficulty in finding employment" are hard to reconcile even with some of the facts discussed in section one, not to mention other sources. One must recognize, however, that prognostication of employment possibilities is highly precarious at best and probably these authors are in general about as near the truth as anyone. If they err, it is on the side of undue optimism.

The book is very readable. High school seniors and vocational counsellors as well as laymen with a more general interest will read it with both enjoyment and profit.

JOHN F. CUBER

Kent State University

The Expansion of Europe: A Social and Political History of the Modern World, 1415-1815. By Wilbur Cortez Abbott. 2nd rev. ed. New York: Crofts, 2 vols in one, 1938. Pp. xxx, 512, 517. \$5.00.

It is difficult to understand why this book, which purports to be the latest revision of the original edition of 1918, should have been published in its present form. For the word revision, if it means what it suggests, presumes some significant change in the physical make-up of a book, in the organization of its contents, and in the scope and depth of its subject matter. Judged by such canons, the present edition can not but prove a disappointment to those familiar to the revised edition of 1924. Save for a different colored binding, the make-up of the older edition has been retained, and the maps and illustrations reappear virtually unaltered. In an effort to bring the story down to 1815, the author has added two chapters totalling 57 pages: the first of these describes the French Revolution and Napoleon; the second is a curious medley entitled "Social, intellectual, and colonial Europe, 1789-1815." In every other respect the pagination, chapter-headings, spacing, and treatment are precisely the same as in the earlier edition.

The present version, therefore, possesses the same virtues and suffers from the same shortcomings as the edition of 1924. The newer historical interpretations and emphases, though by no means neglected, receive no more attention than the old volume exhibited. To be sure, cultural and social developments occupy about a fifth of the entire space, a generous apportionment considering that the design of the original text was worked out twenty years ago when the "new history" was still a comparative infant. But there is little novelty in the inclusion of such material today. As for the sections devoted to economic history, they are the weakest portions of the text in respect both of space and of treatment. One looks in vain for an adequate account of the great revolution in prices that occurred during the sixteenth century, or of the era of dynamic industrialism which commenced in England two decades before Elizabeth's reign or of its counterpart in Bourbon France from the days of Colbert on. In spite of the work of Nef, Heaton,

and other members of the "revisionist" camp of economic historians the reader encounters here that familiar bugbear, the "industrial revolution," pigeon-holed among a mass of miscellaneous happenings that occurred between 1768 and 1789. In the same section appears the "agrarian revolution" which is disposed of in exactly a page and a half (II, pp. 346-47). By contrast to this lack of emphasis on economic developments, the author allots space generously to political history, devoting for example an entire chapter to the Spanish Armada. Such discrepancies seem hard to justify.

Considering the nature of the subject matter, the title "Expansion of Europe" appears to be an unhappy choice for the two volumes. It might be wondered, in the first place, why this title should have been placed in apposition with the sub-title "a Social and Political History of the Modern World," since the two terms are far from synonymous. The fact remains that European expansion overseas is not the central theme of the book, though the author reverts to it in ten of the total twenty-six chapters, nor is particular effectiveness shown in handling the subject as such. Commercial rivalries and colonial wars receive rather more attention than the average textbook is apt to give them, but of the effect upon European civilization of the commodities, ideas, and institutions which the overseas movement brought in from the non-European areas of the world one is permitted to see little. The late Professor Shepherd's fruitful thesis the author has seen fit to ignore along with the work of his pupils, Gillespie and Botsford, and of Continental scholars like Reichwein.

A bibliography that runs to thirty-seven pages might be expected to yield many excellent reading suggestions, and so it does. Nevertheless, one is somewhat taken back to encounter in a college textbook such an array of untranslated French, German, Spanish, Dutch, and Portuguese titles. Certainly this part of the catalogue can be of slight value to the average undergraduate student for whom this text is primarily intended. Like the two volumes of subject matter to which it is appended, the bibliography shows little evidence of having been brought up to date. Except for the references for the two new chapters, the author has consistently ignored the fruits of

historical scholarship since 1917, while retaining much ancient lumber that might well have been omitted.

BRUCE T. McCULLY

Princeton University

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